The Outlook

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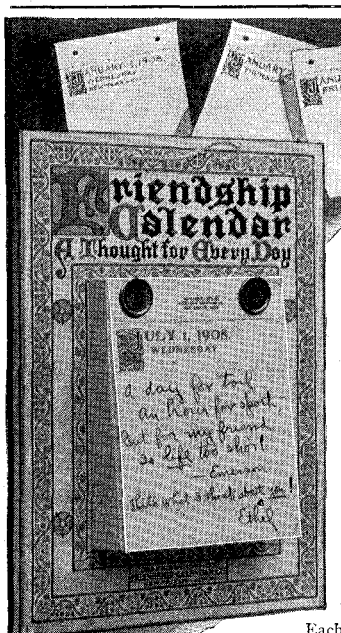

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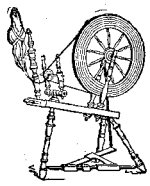

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The Outlook

NEW YORK, OCTOBER 5, 1907

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Oklahoma's Radical Constitution

The Constitution recently adopted by the people of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory for the new State of Oklahoma is a document illustrating the changing political order. Quite irrespective of its merits, it reflects admirably many characteristic tendencies of the day. The common suspicion of corporation management and fear of corporate wealth, the more or less prevalent distrust of representative government and even of the judiciary, the growing belief in the effectiveness of pure democracy, the resentment against the saloon element and its political activities, are all embodied in its provisions. Indeed, the Constitution as originally drawn was regarded by the Convention leaders as providing so nearly a pure democracy that they feared it might be rejected by President Roosevelt on the ground that it contravened the Federal Constitution's guarantee to each State of a republican form of government. Accordingly, by amendment they restored to the Legislature some of the power of which originally they had deprived it. But as it stands to-day the Constitution is undoubtedly the most radical organic law ever adopted in the Union. Some of its provisions were suggested by Mr. W. J. Bryan in a letter to the Constitutional Convention, and its general tenor may perhaps be inferred from Mr. Bryan's assertion later, in a speech at Oklahoma City, that it was the best State Constitution ever written. The disclosures of recent years regarding the illegitimate methods of managers of great corporations evidently had deeply impressed the members of the Convention. They deliberately set out to curb what they called the "incursions of predatory wealth"—especially those of stock-watering and monopolistic oppression. The most stringent measures were adopted to guard against these evils. A Corporation Commission was created, to be composed of three elective members. To this Commission was granted large powers to compel the fullest publicity in corporation affairs, and to regulate the charges of public service corporations. Overcapitalization was forbidden, and a section was framed to prohibit the consolidation of incorporated concerns. Even should one corporation come into control of another to satisfy a debt, it must divest itself of the ownership within a specified period. An anti-discrimination provision was adopted intended to prevent a corporation from "clubbing" a competitor out of business by a temporary reduction in prices in a restricted field. It directs that no concern shall, "for the purpose of creating a monopoly or destroying competition in trade," discriminate between persons or communities by selling at different prices, after making allowance for the cost of transportation. The State is expressly empowered to engage in any industry. This was intended to overcome the difficulty which Kansas encountered when it attempted to operate an oil refinery in its fight with the Standard Oil Company. The common law relieving the employer from liability to employees through the carelessness of a fellow-servant is abrogated, and the first Legislature is directed to enact laws protecting employees. In various States the amount of damages recoverable from a corporation in the event of injury or death is limited by law. The Oklahoma Legislature is forbidden to establish any such limitation.

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Pure Democracy Its Aim

Toward the commonly accepted theory of representative government the Convention's attitude was profoundly distrustful. Its suspicion of

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legislatures appears in the enormous mass of detailed instructions to future general assemblies with which it encumbered the organic law. On the positive side it expressed its belief in the people by establishing the initiative and referendum throughout the State, including municipalities and other subdivisions. A petition of eight per cent of the voters may submit a proposed law to the people, and one of fifteen per cent a proposed constitutional amendment. A law enacted by the Legislature may be referred to the people by that body, or by a petition of five per cent of the voters. On the result of a vote by the people the Governor may not exercise the veto. Similar provisions, as has been said, are extended to the minor political divisions of the State, and in cities franchise grants must be submitted to popular vote. Lest these provisions make the Constitution unrepublican, the Convention inserted an authorization to the Legislature to repeal any law, on the assumption that it never would venture to tamper with a measure enacted by the people. To carry out further the democratic idea, the Legislature is instructed to enact laws for a mandatory primary system for all officers, including United States Senators. What is perhaps another instance of this same distrust of the people's agents manifested itself, too, in the provision that, in orders of injunction and restraint, persons charged with contempt for an act not committed in the presence of the court should be punished only on a verdict by a jury. Such a procedure has long been generally favored by organized labor. The Congressional enabling act required that the liquor traffic be prohibited for twenty-one years in that part of the new State comprised within the old Indian Territory. Because of this requirement, the voters of the Indian Territory united with the Oklahoma Prohibitionists to impose prohibition upon the whole of the new State for the twenty-one-year period. State-wide prohibition was submitted apart from the Constitution, and while the returns were slow in coming in, the provision seems to have carried. Of the other multitudinous provisions of the Constitution it may be noted as odd that so radical an instrument should have restricted woman's suffrage to school elections. Two-cent railway fare is established unless the rate should prove confiscatory on any line. The Governor is elected for four years, and is ineligible to immediate re-election. To guard against interference in politics, corporations are forbidden to contribute to campaign funds.

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The Document Criticised

Undoubtedly the Constitution is open to serious criticism. In his recent visit to Oklahoma, Secretary W. H. Taft censured the work of the Convention as strongly as Mr. Bryan had commended it. His first objection was that the Constitution was a code of laws rather than a constitution, and that it was excessively complicated. When it is recalled that the document contains nearly fifty thousand words, and that it goes into minute detail—it even establishes the flash test for kerosene—the justice of the criticism is obvious, though its importance may be overestimated. Most of Mr. Taft's other objections, the friends of the Constitution would maintain, are subjects for legitimate differences of opinion. He feared that the initiative and referendum might prove dangerous because of the large illiteracy of the people in the Indian Territory, and their lack of previous political experience. He believed that the prohibition of the consolidating of corporations might hinder the State's growth, and that the jury trial for contempt cases was unwise. Further, he objected to the legislative districting of the State by the Constitutional Convention, which was overwhelmingly Democratic, and which carried out a flagrantly partisan gerrymander. In addition, criticism has been made of the elective Corporation Commission as likely to fall far short of the expectations of its projectors. Time alone, however, can show to what extent the Constitution will prove workable, and whether those of its provisions which undoubtedly are admirable in intention will fulfill the purpose of their framers. The organic law thus adopted has been submitted to President Roosevelt to decide—in a

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purely judicial capacity, as provided by law—whether it complies with the provisions of the enabling act and of the Federal Constitution. The President last week indicated his intention to decide this question in the affirmative, and he will accordingly by proclamation announce the entrance to the Union of the forty-sixth State. Officers for the new commonwealth were voted on at the election at which the Constitution was adopted. The Democratic State ticket was elected.

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Mr. Root and Mexico

Last week Mr. Elihu Root, Secretary of State, left Washington for what might be described as a "state" journey to Mexico. His trip is not without significance, for the settlement of the recent Central American disputes and hostilities is due to the simultaneous action of our own and the Mexican Government, which thus stand united as never before. Last week President Roosevelt and President Diaz addressed invitations to the Chief Executives of the five Central American republics, inviting them to send delegates to a conference to be held in Washington some time between November 1 and November 15, in order to agree upon a plan for the peaceful settlement of future disputes. A personal interchange of views between the American and Mexican Ministers of State will be of much value in this connection. But, in any event, the visits of Mr. Root to South American countries and to Canada would make his present visit of logical sequence. Popular interest in it is heightened by the greatly augmented Americo-Mexican trade. During the past decade our exports to Mexico and our imports from that country have each increased about three times. Meanwhile, American investments across our southern border, especially in railways, have increased proportionately; it is reported that a sum exceeding seven hundred million dollars of our money is now employed in Mexico. We trust that Mr. Root's visit may be followed, as his South American sojourn has been, by a greater appreciation in the United States of what has been accomplished in civilization by other countries than our own in the Western Hemisphere. With this increased knowledge and appreciation there may and should come an increased desire for the success of American commercial, diplomatic, educational, and religious influence abroad.

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The Government's Special Counsel

During recent weeks newspapers unfavorably critical of the Administration have claimed that the special counsel who are now employed in the prosecution of offenders of the Anti-Trust Act are remunerated for their services from a fund under the direct personal control of the President, and are therefore responsible to him and not to the Attorney-General. Lest misapprehension thus arise, it may be well to state that the special counsel are employed by the Attorney-General and paid from different "lump" appropriations according to the work they have to do. For instance, Mr. Kellogg, now employed in the prosecution of the Standard Oil Company, is paid from the appropriation for the enforcement of the Anti-Trust Law against restraint of trade. In February, 1903, the sum of five hundred thousand dollars was appropriated to be expended for this purpose in the discretion of the Attorney-General. When, in March, 1907, this fund was nearly exhausted, an additional sum of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars was appropriated. As to the implication that special counsel are less directly under the control of the Attorney-General than are his assistants and the United States attorneys throughout the country, precisely the contrary is the fact. The special counsel are all employed by the head of the department, and their employment can be terminated by him at any moment, while his assistants and the United States attorneys can be removed only by the President, and their successors must be appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. The results accomplished by the Government's special counsel have more than justified the expenditure of the money in this particular matter, and their work has redounded to the dignity and far-reaching efficiency of the Department of Justice

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as administered by Attorneys-General Knox, Moody, and Bonaparte.

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An Inside View of Politics

The press, both East and West, has had a good deal to say about the contest over the postmastership at Berkeley, California. Both because of the recent interest evinced by readers of The Outlook in the articles on San Francisco by "Kew" and in the general situation of affairs in and near San Francisco, and because the incident is in a way typical of partisan political methods the country over, we take the liberty of printing here an account of this Berkeley affair as given in a personal letter from a well-informed and observant correspondent in Berkeley: "We have had a very interesting experience in trying to get a good postmaster for Berkeley. A man named Schmidt has been for years the postmaster here and the local boss, representing the Southern Pacific machine in this county. The post-office has been exquisitely mismanaged, or rather not managed at all; everybody recognizes this. But it was understood that the salary of the postmaster (now $3,100) was contributed by the Federal Government for the maintenance of a private political agency in this town, and that it was an impertinence for any citizen to raise his voice against it. A half-dozen men of rather poor character seem to have been able to run the politics in this town and deliver delegations, and they felt that the post-office was their private possession. A month or so ago Postmaster Schmidt was forced out by the Government on account of his mismanagement. Immediately, before anything was known about it, the name of Mr. Charles E. Thomas was sent in. He is simply the understudy of the former postmaster, and has been doing his political work for years; it was an attempt to continue the old régime. The whole body of the best citizenship of Berkeley and all the professors in the University protested to the Congressman, whose name is Knowland. He thought at first he could patch matters up, but finally determined to stand pat. He told me, when I talked with him, in plain words, the following: 'These professors and business men who have petitioned against the appointment of Thomas are all right, but they never know when the primaries take place and cannot deliver a delegation, and I have got to look out for myself.' These are burning words. They are resented here very thoroughly. We all joined and induced an excellent man, Mr. Clarence S. Merrill, assistant cashier of a savings bank, and son of a man who for twelve years was the beloved postmaster of the town, and himself brought up in the post-office, to allow his name to be used. He did it as a public duty, without any desire to get the office. The President finally made the temporary appointment of Merrill. The entire community is rejoiced; the politicians are furious. They have tried to influence the President by making him think that it will in some way interfere with Taft's indorsement by the California delegation. This is perfectly absurd. The people who are trying to get Thomas appointed postmaster are in reality the bitterest enemies of the President; they are spending their whole strength and time really trying to make him null and void. They are, however, now trying to prove that they are the original Taft people because everybody is now for Taft in the desire to do what Roosevelt wants. I mean by everybody the great mass of the people. Taft will have the California support without a question. Everybody is trying to prove, however, that he was the first man who thought of Taft."

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The New York Rapid Transit Tangle

The inquiry of the Public Service Commission into rapid transit conditions in New York City has already disclosed a remarkable state of confusion in the financial relations of the different transit companies. Action was taken last week which, for the present, still further complicates the situation, but which will undoubtedly in the future assist in its simplification. Two receivers were appointed by Judge Lacombe, of the United States Circuit Court, to take charge of the affairs of the New York City Railway Company. The receivers were appointed on what is

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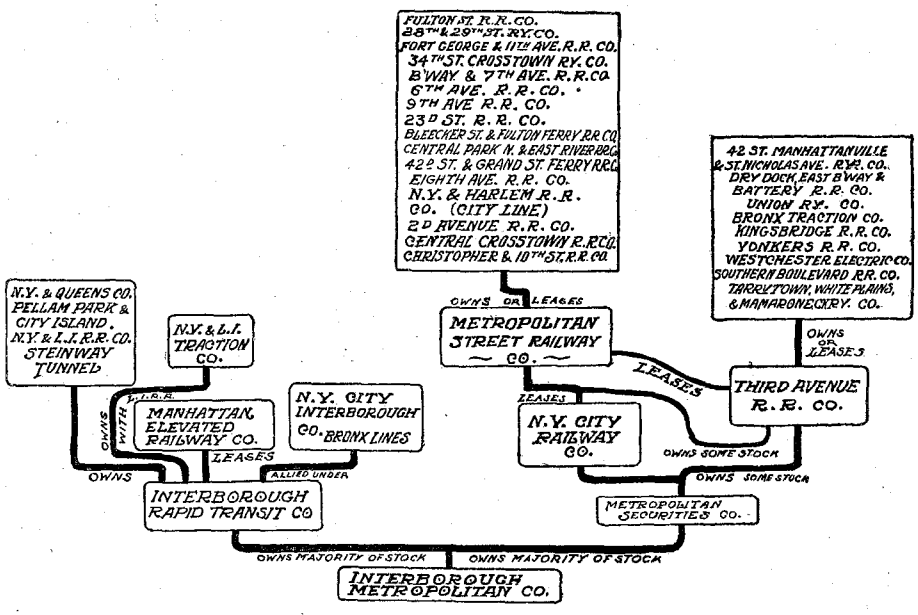
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CENTRAL PARK N. & EAST RIVER R.R. CO.
42D ST. & GRAND ST. FERRY R.R. CO.
EIGHTH AVE. R.R. CO.
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THE FINANCIAL TANGLE OF THE NEW YORK TRANSIT COMPANIES

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termed a friendly application, made by the Pennsylvania Steel Company and the Degnon Contracting Company as creditors, and acquiesced in by the railway through its counsel. Mr. Adrian H. Joline and Mr. Douglas Robinson were appointed receivers and immediately took charge of the railway. The lines of the New York City Railway represent practically all of the surface roads in Manhattan and the Bronx. It is, however, merely an operating company, owning none of those roads. Its relationship to the surface lines as well as to the other transit lines of the city is graphically shown in the diagram on this page. The New York City Railway Company operates the surface lines through a lease of the Metropolitan Street Railway Company, which in its turn either owns or leases about sixteen subsidiary lines, and in addition leases the Third Avenue Railroad Company, which in its turn owns or leases ten or a dozen lines. On the other hand, a majority of the stock of the New York City Railway Company is owned by the Metropolitan Securities Company, a majority of the stock of which is owned by the Interborough Metropolitan Company, popularly known as the "Inter-Met," the great combination which controls rapid transit in Manhattan and the Bronx. The "Inter-Met" also owns a majority of the stock of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company, which operates the subway under a lease from the city, and the elevated lines on a lease from the Manhattan Elevated Railroad Company. When it is remembered that each of these companies, whether it is the owner of a single line, or the lessee of a group or system of lines, or merely a holding company owning the stock of one or more other companies, has its own group of securities of all sorts—common stock, preferred stock, bonds, certificates of indebtedness, and what-not—the confusion of the situation seems incurable. The first duty of the receivers will be to ascertain the exact financial condition of the railway company, meanwhile, of course, administering its affairs as economically and efficiently as possible. This work will probably take a number of months. It is announced that the appointment of the receivers will not interfere with the investigation by the Public Service Commission. The inquiry will be diligently continued with the purpose of unraveling the tangle of financial relations in which the transit lines have been involved, to the profit and satisfaction, probably, of certain

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financial interests, but to the complete bewilderment of the party most at interest, the traveling public of the city.

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Three Problems Settled at One Stroke

In August the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Convention, or agreement, was announced. Last week the text was made public. The agreement is divided into three heads—Tibet, Afghanistan, and Persia. Concerning the first region it is agreed that its territorial integrity shall be respected, and that both Great Britain and Russia shall abstain from intervention in its internal administration, treating with Tibet only through the Chinese Government. This, however, does not exclude direct relations between British commercial agents and the Tibetan authorities, as provided for in the Anglo-Tibetan Convention of 1904 and confirmed by the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1906. The British are thus retaining rights in Tibet which apparently they deny to Russians in Afghanistan, for Russia not only declares that she will recognize that country as outside of her sphere of interest and that she will act in all her political relations with it through the intermediary of the British Government, but also undertakes not to send any agents thither. As to Persia, Great Britain concedes to Russia a monopoly of political and commercial concessions in the northern provinces, and Russia makes a similar concession to Great Britain as to the east and southeast parts, thus relinquishing her designs upon Bander Abbas, the port on the Persian Gulf in which she has hoped to realize her desire for a harbor ice-free all the year. If she thus renounces this ambition, both on the Pacific, as a result of the Russo-Japanese War, and on the Indian Ocean, the Convention must contain some corresponding offset which its published text does not disclose. It is therefore not unreasonable to surmise that, in accordance with the feelings of many Englishmen as well as of all Russians, Great Britain has formally agreed to favor Russia's desire to have an unchecked outlet to the Mediterranean through the Bosporus. German influence may possibly have had something to do with leaving a part of Persia outside of the Russian and English spheres of influence; namely, the region to the southwest, fronting upon Mesopotamia to the west and the Persian Gulf to the south. Though the German Mesopotamian railway will not traverse Persia, it will run close to the frontier, and will depend for traffic largely upon just those provinces outside of the English and Russian spheres of influence. An important feature of the Convention, however, is the agreement that, in the case of the Persian Government's failure to pay interest on its foreign loans, England and Russia may assume control of the sources of revenue in their respective spheres. It is satisfactory to add that the terms of the Convention in general appear reasonable to critics, not only in England and Russia, but also in France and Germany. There are few exceptions to the favorable judgment respecting the probable operations of an agreement which by one stroke settles three vexed problems. Each of these problems has been large and complicated enough to threaten war between the two Great Powers chiefly interested in Asia.

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A New Case for the Hague Court

The agreement just concluded between the American and British Governments respecting the Newfoundland fisheries records the British Government's consent not to enforce the Newfoundland Foreign Fishing Vessels Act of 1906, which imposes on foreign shipmasters drastic restrictions in the employment of native labor, in addition to those imposed by the Act of 1905. In return, the American Government agrees, first, that if American fishing vessels ship Newfoundlanders as fishermen it must be well outside the three-mile limit; second, to stop the use of purse seine nets; and, third, to waive the right to fish on Sundays. The agreement thus seems more favorable to Newfoundland than the previous agreement, for the use of purse seines is claimed by the islanders to be destructive of their fisheries; and fishing on Sundays

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has given us an advantage over the Newfoundlanders, who are strictly forbidden to fish on that day. The long-established practice by which Americans hire labor from Newfoundland is due to the far greater expense of taking crews from American than from Newfoundland ports for the herring fishing. As to our right to fish at all in the waters off Newfoundland, the American Government relies on the Treaty of 1818, by which, in common with British subjects, the inhabitants of the United States may take fish of every description off the south and west coasts of Newfoundland and the Atlantic seaboard of Labrador, which is an appanage of Newfoundland, and the shores of the Magdalen Islands and of far eastern Quebec, both of which belong to Canada. But what does "coast" mean? As Americans interpret the treaty, our fishermen may exercise the right to fish anywhere along the Newfoundland south and west coasts, within the limits prescribed by the treaty, for any kind of fish in any manner we think best, irrespective of the nationality of crews, save Newfoundland crews shipped in Newfoundland waters within the three-mile limit. But Sir Robert Bond, the Newfoundland Premier, disputes, first, our right to take Newfoundland laborers at all, as against the Colony's laws, and declares that, in any event, we have no right to operate in the bays or inlets. The Bay of Islands is the principal scene of the winter herring fisheries. If Sir Robert's position were upheld by the British Cabinet, our fishermen would be deprived of their most lucrative field. But the British Government has declined to acquiesce in Sir Robert's construction; instead, it declares that our right to fish in the Bay of Islands and its inlets may be exercised by American citizens until a final settlement of the questions has been reached. How shall that settlement be reached? Our Government has proposed arbitration. But to this Sir Robert Bond again demurs. Whatever his opinion as to boundaries, as to labor he said in a recent speech:

> I cannot see what there is to arbitrate upon. To my mind, the only question is as to the binding effect of colonial laws upon American citizens when they come within British jurisdiction. . . . If the British Government intends to submit colonial statutes to arbitration, then I respectfully contend that it would be derogatory to the Crown and in direct contravention to the constitutional right of the self-governing colonies to submit their statutes to the arbitrament of any foreign Power, or of any person, or of any body of men.

In view of the Premier's menacing attitude, an Imperial Order-in-Council was published last week, suspending several sections of the Newfoundland Foreign Fishing Vessels Act. Upon this Sir Robert, still undaunted, declared, as reported, that the rescript was invalid because it attempts to suspend, by royal prerogative, legislation which has received royal assent.

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Does the British Government Override Provincial Laws?

Be this as it may, Newfoundland's are not the only British interests involved in the fisheries disputes. As will be noted from the areas defined in the Treaty of 1818, Canada's are also, and last week the Canadian Government agreed, for its part, to submit the question to the Hague Tribunal. Nevertheless, the Canadians are sufficiently sympathetic with the position of Newfoundland to criticise sharply the home Government in its seeming attempt to override provincial laws in favor of the United States. The Canadians justly declare that the question does not affect Newfoundland alone; it also affects Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, for if the British Government can lawfully override the laws of Newfoundland, it can similarly override the laws of any other province. Besides, there is a general opinion throughout both Newfoundland and Canada that, in adjusting differences which arise between British and American interests, the home Government is inclined to sacrifice those of her North American colonies rather than to risk a rupture of friendly relations with the United States. The history of the Alaskan adjudication still rankles in Canadians' minds, and they regard the winning over of Lord Alverstone by our delegates to the American view of the

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matter as, in some sense, a betrayal by that British statesman of Canadian interests; they are sure that, if the arbitrators on the British side had consisted of three Canadians instead of two Canadians and one Englishman, the result would have been different. At all events, it is clear that the meaning of the treaty's text must first be elucidated. Our fishermen have long had custom in their favor. We shall now see whether they have right also on their side.

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Italy and Argentina as International Leaders

The relations between Italy and Argentina have become close. There is an immense tide of emigration from Italian ports to Buenos Aires, and not an inconsiderable return of more or less affluent Italians. Notwithstanding the latter fact, the permanent Italian population in Argentina is said to be not far from a million. Quality as well as quantity is represented, for many more go from North Italy to Argentina than come to North America; our Italian population is mostly made up of the people from South Italy. Climate, racial sympathy, and a more attractive chance of success than in North America induce this immense emigration. Concerning the Italian's chance to rise in Argentina, one has but to note that Italians constitute the majority of the population in the Argentina wheat districts, while in the corn districts they have well-nigh a monopoly of the farms. One in every eight of the Italians has become a proprietor. It takes a good deal to induce the comparatively thrifty North Italian to go away from his home, but such a prospect as this has induced a good many to leave, especially as, in addition, it has become known that Italians are monopolizing the river carrying trade, that in the towns they are practically controlling such industries as milling, meat, tanning, tobacco, soap, paper, and cement making, and marble-works, and that in Buenos Aires a third of the commercial firms are reported to be Italian, and more than half of all the workshops. Finally, Italian architects have been in charge of much of the building in the cities—Buenos Aires, Rosario, and La Plata. With such economic bonds it is appropriate that there should be included in the gratifyingly growing lists of treaties of arbitration one between Italy and Argentina. The treaty framed in 1898 practically referred all difficulties to arbitration. Italy and Argentina thus became international leaders. Unfortunately, however, this document remained unratified. A better fate, we hope, awaits the Italo-Argentine Treaty of Arbitration, recently signed at The Hague by Count Tornielli, Italian Ambassador at Paris, and Dr. Saenz Peña, formerly Argentine Foreign Minister, both officials being now the First Delegates from their respective countries at the Hague Peace Conference. It is announced that Italy and Argentina now agree to submit to arbitration all disputes not settled by diplomatic means, with the exception of those concerning the constitutional provisions of either Power, and, furthermore, agree to submit to arbitration the question whether a given controversy does or does not fall within the exception. Such an admirable and exemplary clause reminds one of that in the epoch-making treaty of Karlstad concluded two years ago between Norway and Sweden, in which those countries agreed to submit to arbitration all disputes which do not affect the independence, integrity, or vital interest of either, and, in the event of a difference of opinion as to whether a given controversy touches the vital interests of one of them, this question also is to be submitted to arbitration. The Italo-Argentine agreement provides, as in the unratified treaty of 1898, that each country is to name an arbitrator, taking them preferably from the list of members of the Hague Court. These two are to choose a third; in case of disagreement the parties are to ask a third power to name him, and, in case of disagreement as to the power, to ask the ruler of Holland. It is appropriate that such a treaty should be signed at The Hague, for its principle should serve as an object-lesson to those recalcitrant nations, represented at the Peace Conference there, which still oppose a general treaty of obligatory arbitration. In time the principle involved in such a treaty must prevail.

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How England Has Suppressed Electoral Corruption

The final episode in the Worcester election petition case—the assessment on all the occupiers of property of a special tax to defray the cost of unearthing the city's electoral corruption—helps to explain why the drastic Corrupt Practices Act of 1883 has almost made an end to bribery at Parliamentary and municipal elections in England. The Act has succeeded because it has made bribery too dangerous for both electors and candidates; and, in addition to this danger to the persons most concerned, it has thrown civic disabilities and heavy pecuniary costs on communities in which it is established by judicial inquiry that bribery exists. Following the general election of 1906, there were only five or six constituencies from which the return of the members elected was protested on the ground of bribery or other corrupt or irregular practices. The small number of the protested returns was remarkable in view of the fact that there were more pollings—fewer uncontested elections—than at any previous general election in Parliamentary history. In one or two of the petition cases that were tried by the judges of the High Court, only technical offenses were alleged against the sitting members; and the trial of the petition at Worcester was the only one in which widespread and squalid bribery was exposed. Cathedral cities in England have always had a squalid electoral history. The squalor in some of them was of centuries' standing when Sir Henry James—now Lord James—drafted and carried through Parliament, in 1883, the famous Anti-Bribery Act associated with his name. The result of the petition at Worcester, tried in the summer of 1906, was that the Conservative member who had been elected in January was unseated and mulcted in the heavy costs attending the long-drawn-out trial. These costs must have amounted to twenty or twenty-five thousand dollars. But for the city of Worcester the matter did not end with the trial of the election petition. The report made by the judges to the Speaker when they notified the House of Commons that the member returned had been unseated for bribery was so bad that Parliament ordered another inquiry into electoral conditions in the city. This second inquiry was by Royal Commission. Again the report was bad—so bad as only narrowly to escape bringing about the disfranchisement of Worcester for a period of six or seven years. Worcester, however, escaped this civic disgrace—barely escaped a punishment which in former years (before the James Act became law) was meted out to several urban Parliamentary constituencies notorious for electoral corruption. A new writ was issued, after much protest in the House of Commons, and Worcester is again represented in Parliament. In the summer of 1907, however, the city was presented with its bill for the expenses of the Royal Commission, and in September a special tax of threepence-halfpenny in the pound was laid on all occupiers of property within the municipal limits to pay the bill. The penalty thus falling on a man living in a house of a rental value of fifty pounds a year, and assessed at forty pounds, would be eleven shillings and eightpence—in American money about three dollars. Three hundred of the women occupiers of Worcester signed a memorial to the City Council urging that as they are not voters at Parliamentary elections, and as they were in no way responsible for the corruption, they ought to be exempted from the special tax. But every occupier, man or woman, was compelled to pay. And this direct pecuniary responsibility will doubtless at last free Worcester from electoral squalor which is quite two centuries old.

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Justice to Korea

In view of the harsh treatment of Korea generally attributed to Japan, and the reports which have been published in this country of the outrages upon the person and property of Korean subjects by Japanese soldiers and civilians, it is encouraging and reassuring to read the earnest declarations recently made by Prince Ito, the Japanese Resident-General in Korea, and the most eminent of all the Japanese statesmen and leaders. Prince Ito last week, before leaving Tokyo for Korea, in what is evidently

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an authorized interview with the correspondent of the Associated Press, showed, as that correspondent remarks, a depth of feeling unusual in a Japanese. He said that the Emperor and his Ministers had given their unanimous approval to his programme for a reform administration in Korea, and added these notable words: "It is right, and therefore must be done. It must succeed if it is possible of human accomplishment." This is the spirit and this is the intention which the United States holds toward its administration of Philippine affairs; and that Japan should through the mouth of its great statesman enunciate the same principles with regard to Korea is not a matter of trifling import. Prince Ito's plan includes adequate land laws, a fair system of taxation, the protection of life and property, education for every one, honest courts of justice, and "the stern abolition of corruption." It is expected that these reforms will cost Japan ten millions of dollars in five years, and this, it is promised, shall not be a burden upon the Korean people, but will be considered an investment by Japan. Prince Ito has opposed, and still opposes, the annexation of Korea, which he claims to be "a crude and cruel means of obtaining the desired friendship and assistance of Korea, in order to build up the two countries, whose interests are mutual." It is admitted on all sides that reform is sorely needed in Korea. Many of the evils now existing had their origin in conditions for which Japan is not responsible; others have come out of the occupation of the country by the Japanese army and the rapid influx of immigrants, many of them greedy and scornful of Korean rights and feelings. It is interesting to know that Prince Ito sent a special message of friendship to the missionaries of America and England, and declared: "We are all working for a common object—namely, the building up of civilization." He added: "America is our friend and we are the friend of America. The recent talk of war finds no support among the statesmen of Japan or the United States. War between these two countries is unspeakable and impossible." These are welcome words from an authoritative source.

Real Color Photography

A method of photographing in colors has again been discovered. This time, however, the process seems to have been proved practicable and available for use by any capable worker in photography. It is not, as has been the case with earlier discoveries, simply a laboratory demonstration dependent upon complicated accessories and delicate manipulation, nor a process so disappointing as the current color-printing methods which rest for success upon mechanical exactness unattainable in practice. It should be said at once, however, that the result is a transparency, and not a photograph in the popular sense of the term. While the color process under mention was described years ago by its inventors, the Lumière Brothers, noted French scientists and plate-makers, the necessary "autochrome" plates for its working have but recently been made sparingly accessible. The method uses a single plate, exposed in the ordinary way in a camera, and subjected thereafter to several comparatively simple operations, which may readily be completed within a half-hour. The result is a transparency, similar to a colored lantern slide—and, indeed, quite capable of being used as such. It renders with remarkable fidelity all the hues and color gradations of the scene or the object upon which it was exposed. These autochrome plates are made to record colors through the use of a layer of transparent starch grains of even and exceedingly minute size. These grains, having been separately dyed to the selected primary hues of violet, green, and orange, are equally mixed, and spread or dusted over the glass plate in one uniform layer. After a treatment in which pressure and heat are applied, the result is a mosaic of these dyed starch grains, so covering the plate that no light can pass except through the colored particles. So minute are these particles, and so accurately are they commingled, that the prepared plate, when looked through, resembles a piece of ordinary ground glass (with a slight pinkish tinge), all the transmitted rays of colored light being recombined by the eye into white. Upon this foundation, which

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is in effect a combination, in a single layer, of the primary ray filters required by the commercial "three-color process" of the day, a very thin photographic emulsion is spread, which is panchromatic, or sensitive to all colors. The exposure of the plate in the camera is with the glass side toward the lens, so that before reaching the sensitive film the light rays reflected from the colors of the object being photographed must pass through the mosaic of dyed starch grains. These, acting as selective ray filters, produce corresponding color values in the film. Several simple chemical baths develop, reverse, redevelop, and fix the resulting image, which then becomes a color positive, showing, when looked through, the chromatic hues of the object photographed. So far no method of duplicating or printing these results on paper has been devised, and the autochrome transparencies are as individual as were the daguerreotypes of early photography. Owing to the great demand for the autochrome plates in France and England, none have yet been available for use in this country. Several noted American photographic workers, including Alfred Stieglitz and Edouard Steichen, have used the plates, however, in France. They have obtained results much superior, it is said, to those shown by the makers of the plates themselves. Last week Mr. Stieglitz brought back with him from France a number of examples of such work. They include still-life studies, genre pictures, and portraits, and several of the subjects were arranged to give hard tests of the color-rendering capacities of the plates. The results shown are phenomenal. The colors are reproduced with surprising fidelity, and with a richness and brilliance of tone in some cases that rival those of an oil painting. In other subjects the effect of softness and delicacy is that of a pastel. One of the most astonishing results obtained is the clearness and brilliance of the whites in the pictures. In one example the white of a cuff is noticeably purer than the color of the original plate. The drawbacks to the process are the necessity of viewing the pictures by transmitted light, and the fact that each picture must be made by a separate exposure. But the limitations of the process do not detract from the beauty of the resulting pictures, or lessen the importance of the achievement.

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A Great Stewardship

When Mr. Daniel Willis James died, the newspapers devoted but little space to his career. He was not known to the populace. Outside the circle of his personal acquaintance and the rather narrow confines of the world in which dwell the "captains of industry" his name was seldom heard. Yet Mr. James was one of the richest men in America and was one of the wisest and most generous of those who have brought honor to the name of philanthropist. It is evident that from his life the desire for notoriety as a motive for action was severely excluded. He enjoyed the luxury of remaining in comparative obscurity while he directed great industrial enterprises and enriched institutions of learning and of charity. He was a leader in the development of the Southwest. The firm in which he was the dominant member owned great copper mines in that region, and was the chief factor in the building and the ownership of a railway system of over thirteen hundred miles. Mr. James was associated also with Mr. James J. Hill in the development of the Northwest. He was connected, in one capacity or another, with large manufacturing concerns and with important banks. It is a grave error to regard such a man as engaged in amassing wealth. He was engaged in as real service to the Nation as if he held public office. Such a man does not excite envy, because he advances in prosperity only in proportion as he brings prosperity to the community. His wealth represents, not gain at the expense of others, but merely a share in a gain that is widely distributed. In the highest sense, therefore, Mr. James's philanthropy was exhibited in his business activities. In the narrower sense his philanthropy was equally distinctive. It was marked by a modesty that might almost be called ingenious. Two years ago last February the receipt of a gift of more than a million dollars was announced by Union Theological Semi-

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nary. This, the largest single gift ever bestowed upon a theological seminary, was anonymous. The giver, it is now known, was Mr. James. The course pursued by him in this case was characteristic. To Amherst College, of which he was a trustee, Columbia University, Oberlin, Hartford Theological Seminary, the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, the Children's Aid Society, of which for several years he was President, the American Board, and the town of Madison, New Jersey, where he had his summer residence, he gave large sums of money in the same unostentatious way. One method he adopted of concealing his identity consisted in transmitting money through a bank, so that even the recipient could not identify the donor. Mr. James was born in Liverpool, England, seventy-five years ago. This country has been enriched, not merely by his industrial leadership and his benefactions, but by his qualities of mind and character. On another page we quote some words from what the Bishop of London said in Trinity Church last week on the Christian conception of the stewardship of the wealthy. By embodying this conception in the practical life of industry and finance Mr. D. Willis James rendered this country his greatest service.

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The Lock and the Key

It takes a long time to prepare a lock. It takes a short time to turn the key in that lock. The Hague Conference of 1907 has been a long time preparing the way towards agreement on all possible subjects of its programme. It will take a short time to register its decisions. Many of them have already been registered.

Despite this, there is much pessimistic criticism. In American, English, and Continental newspapers such headlines continually appear as "Failure at The Hague," "The Conference a Travesty," etc. In view of these snap-shot judgments, it may be well to review the actual accomplishments at The Hague.

First of all, the Conference would have been worth the summoning even had it accomplished nothing at all in the writing of new and additional international law, because, for the first time in the world's history, the representatives of forty-five nations have met together and have advanced their friendly relations. It is impossible precisely to define the advance of such relations among nations. They are like friendships among individuals. From time to time their growth may be registered by some particular deed, but silent growth is not to be so exactly measured. At The Hague this summer, however, one could almost *see* the growth of international understanding and better international feeling.

In the second place, the Conference has accomplished—this also for the first time in the world's history—a noble act in the recognition of the Latin-American states. At the first Hague Conference Mexico alone of these was represented. Largely because of our own Government's insistence, the Emperor of Russia, in summoning the present Hague Conference, sent invitations to all of the Central and South American Governments. It was expected that their delegates would occupy a decidedly subordinate position. To the surprise of all, those delegates have been constantly at the front of the stage, and, in general, their speeches and criticisms have been characterized by peculiar pertinence. Thus Latin America now presents a changed ethnographic expression to certain conservative Hague delegates.

Among the things accomplished on the official programme a deservedly prominent place should be given to that which concerns Latin America more than any other part of the world; namely, the prohibition of the use of force in collecting public debts until the Hague Court shall have pronounced both as to the justice and as to the amount of the debt in question.

More important still, the Conference has provided for its automatic recurrence. Henceforth it will not be dependent on the will of any particular ruler. Thus a long step has been taken towards a definite International Parliament—the Conference's chief duty and privilege.

In the next place, the declaration of the first Hague Conference regarding

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limitation of armament has now been passed in a more drastic form.

A declaration has also been adopted regarding the desirability of new agreements between countries of emigration and countries of immigration.

As to the desirability of defining the rights and duties of neutrals, favorable decisions have now been reached by the Conference in establishing the territorial integrity of neutrals, and the right of asylum on neutral territory for prisoners of war; in the prohibition to belligerents to establish wireless telegraph stations in neutral regions; finally, in the limit placed on a belligerent's opportunity to obtain provisions.

In the next place, the Conference has done as much as it could to reverse the practice of two centuries and a half by providing that hostilities must not begin without previous unequivocal notice, either in the form of a declaration of war or an ultimatum with a conditional declaration; furthermore, that a state of war must be notified without delay to the neutral powers, and may be given by wire.

In land warfare the Conference has decided upon improved laws in general; in particular, it has brought again to life the lapsed "declarations" of the Conference of 1899; namely, prohibitions to launch explosives from balloons, to diffuse deleterious gases, and to use expansive bullets; and it now requires, for the first time, indemnification by any belligerent who violates the new laws, and, as well, his responsibility for all acts committed by persons forming part of his armed forces.

In sea-warfare rules the Conference has decided upon the period of grace to be granted to belligerent merchantmen in an enemy's ports at the opening of hostilities and upon the transformation of merchantmen into war-ships. It has prohibited the bombardment of undefended places, and has proclaimed its adherence to the humanitarian recommendations of the Geneva Red Cross Conventions; it has declared that the mails shall be inviolate, and that, when possible, the same laws and customs shall govern naval as land warfare; finally, it has established an International Prize Court, giving to that body unlimited right of appeal in cases where neutrals are concerned.

More than twenty favorable decisions have thus been reached. On four subjects only has there been definite disagreement recorded. With such a record pessimistic criticism seems strange.

It is true that the absence so far of some hoped-for results has been due in part to the lack of adequate preparation by all the countries represented, but much more to certain inveterate prejudices, some of which still have to be overcome. It is largely in the patient overcoming of such prejudices that the long preparation of the diplomatic lock is involved. Before it is ready for the key to turn quickly and successfully there must be many technical and official conferences. There must be ample opportunity for free and intimate social intercourse also, before the delegates from forty-five nations can agree.

The Hague Conference has done fully as well as the best judges expected. If most of its decisions seem to relate to those subjects that regulate war rather than to those that actually prevent it, we may remember that laws and customs of war, such as the above, indirectly prevent it by making it more difficult. Moreover, when once war is begun, they confine hostilities to certain spheres and thus limit the disturbance of the neutrals' peaceful occupations. As to the subjects which have to do with the direct prevention of war, however, the Conference has made a good beginning and, we expect, will make a good ending.

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The Gospel for To-Day

The sermon preached by the Bishop of London last week at Trinity Church, New York, and the article by Cardinal Gibbons in the October Putnam's Monthly are hopeful indications of the trend of thought in the Christian Church.

The Bishop of London laid stress on the principle that all wealth is a stewardship, for the use of which the possessor must eventually give account. A few sentences selected from a newspaper

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report of this sermon will suffice to illustrate his use of this principle:

> You are not your own. Nothing that you have is your own. We haven't learned the Christian religion if we have not learned the lesson of stewardship. My home has been the home of the Bishops of London for thirteen hundred years. Suppose I should say that it was my own and that the Bishop's income of $50,000 a year was my own. I would be called a madman. The man who thinks he owns what he has in his keeping is no less a madman. This applies alike to the boy and his pocket money and to the millionaire and his millions. Disregard of this trust is the cause of all the social evils of London and New York. If every man considered himself as a steward, there would be no object in dishonesty. Stewardship would do away with the tyranny of capital. . . . The rise of bitter Socialism, the new terror of Europe, is due to the neglect of the elementary principles of the Christian social religion. . . . And the same great message must be applied to all the other gifts and possessions which a man has, his influence in the world, his natural gifts, his talents.

Cardinal Gibbons, without laying down any such general principle, strikes at the root of our industrial evils by condemning the spirit of greed and ambition in both the capitalist and the employee: Strikes are a very questionable remedy for industrial wrongs; the adoption of arbitration would be a great gain to both classes and to the entire community; boycotting is a violation of the rights of free men in a free community; labor unions are imperiled when they tolerate designing demagogues who are in them for personal advancement; those who commit violence should be promptly expelled from the union on which they bring discredit by their lawlessness. Like advice is given to the capitalist:

> No friend of his race can contemplate without painful emotions those heartless monopolists. . . . Their sole aim is to realize large dividends, without regard to the paramount claims of justice and Christian charity. These trusts and monopolies, like the car of Juggernaut, crush every obstacle that stands in their way. They endeavor—not always, it is alleged, without success—to corrupt our National and State legislatures and municipal councils. They are so intolerant of honest rivalry as to use unlawful means in driving from the market all competing industries. They compel their operatives to work for starving wages, especially in mining districts and factories, where protests have but a feeble echo and are easily stifled by intimidation. . . . There would be less ground for complaint against employers if they kept in view the golden maxim of the Gospel: "Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye also unto them." Our sympathy with those in our employ, whether in the household, the mines, or the factory, is wonderfully quickened by putting ourselves in their place, and by asking ourselves how we would wish to be treated in similar circumstances.

It is a good sign when such eminent leaders in the Christian Church apply to the solution of an industrial problem the principles inculcated and the spirit inspired by Jesus Christ. If sinners against the law of brotherhood, who, like the demoniac spirit in the Gospel narratives, wish to be let alone, condemn such preaching as politics and demand that the preacher preach the Gospel, the answer is plain: This is the Gospel. For the Gospel of Jesus Christ is the Gospel of the Kingdom of God, and the Kingdom of God is righteousness and peace and joy in holiness of spirit. This is Paul's definition of the Kingdom, and it tallies with Christ's teaching concerning the Kingdom. To preach to labor demagogues and millionaire tyrants that they are criminals against God and man because of their unrighteousness, to preach to both parties to a labor conflict that the way to social peace is arbitration, not war, to point out to all classes that the happiness of one cannot be obtained at the expense of the others, and that joy comes through putting one's self in his neighbor's place, is preaching the Gospel. It is preaching fashioned after that of the parable of the Good Samaritan, the Rich Fool, and the Last Judgment. To preach in this fashion one does not need to be a trained sociologist; he does not need to be a business expert; he does not need to take sides in any pending controversy, or to make himself the advocate of either the laborer or the capitalist. He only needs to study the teachings of Jesus Christ, to possess the spirit of Jesus Christ, and with the courage of Jesus Christ to apply Christ's principles and inculcate Christ's spirit. The Outlook commends the sermon of the Bishop of London and the article of Cardinal Gibbons to the careful consideration of the Christian teachers of all denominations as excellent examples of Gospel preaching.

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An Unappreciated Asset

There is one argument for the encouragement of literature which has not been sufficiently considered, and that is the monetary value of the Man of Letters to the place in which he lives or about which he writes. The distinguished writer has never yet received his due as a community asset. A novelist of world-wide reputation was stopped one morning on the street by a neighbor who had lived near him for twenty years in a certain city in Germany, with the question, "Herr Blank, I hear that you write novels; is that so?" The accused modestly admitted the charge. "In that case," said the inquirer, "would you mind lending me one of your stories?" This was an extreme illustration of local indifference to a valuable local asset; for the time will come when the usual tablet will be placed on the house stating that Herr Blank lived there for thirty or more years, and a tide of pilgrims will seek the shrine and enrich the hotels of the city. The man who drove a stranger from the station to see Emerson's home in Concord remarked, in answer to a question about the great writer's personality, that he believed Emerson was a man of considerable property! That was the near-by and obvious valuation of a fellow-citizen who did not understand that the author of "Nature" was to give Concord a reputation of the most substantial value in the years to come. Pilgrims from all parts of the country already visit the beautiful old town and go to the cemetery and walk to Walden Pond, but they are only the skirmish line of the army of invaders who will arrive on trains and in automobiles in the future.

There is no form of advertisement of a section comparable in efficiency with a popular novel or a body of good poetry celebrating the locality. Consider what the Waverley Novels have done for the Highlands of Scotland. If the railways, coaching companies, and hotels had understood the value of Scott, they would have paid his debts without flinching. That little talk between Ben Jonson and Drummond at Hawthornden has been worth its weight in gold as a permanent attraction. "It was here," a middle-aged chaperon of three American girls was overheard remarking on a char-a-banc a few years ago, "that Mr. Boswell visited Dr. Johnson." Shakespeare appears to have made friends right and left in his time, and when he went back to Stratford and bought New Place and settled down to the life of a country gentleman of means, no doubt his neighbors respected him as a very successful citizen; but they did not dream that the fact that he had been born and brought up in the little country town would be a mine of local profit in the future. Every year more than ten thousand Americans, to say nothing of crowds of Englishmen, visit the birthplace, the old school, the church, and the cottage at Shottery, and leave the most substantial memorials of their stay behind. Washington Irving was a very uncommercial person, but he set a mighty tide flowing toward Stratford and gave the pleasant Red Horse Inn an international reputation when he wrote that charming essay eighty years ago. Warwickshire owes much to Mr. Winter also, and could well afford to present every visitor with a copy of "Shakespeare's England."

No man loved retirement better than Wordsworth, nor was any more modest in his demands for monetary reward; but the plain little house at Grasmere is so full of tourists in midsummer that it is a matter of some difficulty to get up and down the narrow stairs or climb the stone steps in the tiny garden. In the old days a select few went to the shrine—Coleridge, Southey, Scott, De Quincey, Christopher North, Hartley Coleridge; now the beautiful road along the shores of the lakes is a crowded thoroughfare, and when the red-coated coachman descends from the box and helps his passengers to the ground, he says, in a loud voice, "Ten minutes to see the grave of Wordsworth." It makes one shudder, but the sign "lodgings" is in every window, tea is served in the dear little garden which overlooks the Rotha, there are photographs in every shop, and a Pactolian stream of pounds and shillings enriches the soil. In his day Wordsworth

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must have seemed to practical persons a most unpromising form of investment, but he has paid a much better return than consols. Poor Burns could barely keep soul and body together, but he has brought increasing returns to Ayrshire. There is a bust let into the wall of the house in Dumfries where he died, and there is a proper inscription over the door of the cottage at Alloway where he was born, and there is a promising current flowing toward both localities.

The Isle of Wight was not widely appreciated until it became the home of Tennyson; now the coach gives its passengers two hours and twenty minutes at Freshwater, and the driver points out the road to Farringford, and crowds wait at the gates, and the summer-house in which "Enoch Arden" was written is kept under lock and key to prevent its bodily removal by tourists. The hotels are full, the trains crowded, and the merry horn of the well-loaded coach is heard along the beautiful roads.

Many of the poets who sleep in the Poets' Corner of the Abbey were beset with financial difficulties during life, but in death what hosts throng about their various effigies! If a fee were charged for admission to the sacred place, what a stream would pour into the coffers of the noble church! Schiller's "William Tell" has done much for Lake Constance, but getting bread and butter was a serious problem for its author. Narrow means were never touched with greater dignity than in the modest lodgings in Weimar; but every year an increasing number of pilgrims seek this shrine of the poet-priest, as Carlyle called him, in the most interesting of German towns. The aristocratic Goethe would have shrunk from the open house his fame keeps on the Square; and even Liszt might have objected to some of the guests who now fill his rooms in the same historic town. "Childe Harold" has become a fashionable guide-book, and "Lorna Doone" has made the Doone Valley the most popular pilgrimage from Lynton. Americans are still so busy exploring Europe that the local shrines are not yet rated at their full value; but they are rapidly appreciating. The home of Longfellow is one of the many attractions of Cambridge, and it is only a question when Elmwood will become an important local asset. Adventurous tourists seek the "House of Seven Gables" in Salem. The house in which "Silas Lapham" lived is pointed out in Boston, and years hence there will be tablets on the houses which have been so fortunate as to shelter Mr. Howells.

It is clear that communities are not yet awake to the value of the Man of Letters as a financial asset. In the better time that is coming, it may be that poets and novelists will be tenderly cherished by their neighbors, and that the first step in the founding of a new town will not be the preparation of elaborate maps of streets that are to be, the running of excursion trains, and the offer of gratuitous lunches, but the invitation to a popular writer to occupy a prominent site.

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The Spectator

The Spectator, as befits a descendant of Mayflower ancestors, visits Plymouth whenever he gets within easy reach of it. This year, of course, Provincetown carried off all the honors, and set Plymouth Rock down hard in its proper place as only a secondary landing-spot of the Pilgrim band. But Provincetown cannot, by any stretch of history, be called the home of the Pilgrims, though they did their washing there. One wash-day does not make a domicile, and that is all that Provincetonians can claim. Plymouth and the Pilgrim Fathers are forever joined in story, and Plymouth Rock seems to have been providentially provided, as the only rock for miles up and down the shore, for the immortal band to step out on. It is truly, in slang parlance, the only pebble on the beach of Colonial history. The Spectator reveres it even under its soda-water fountain pavilion, and finds Burial Hill and the old Plymouth houses more interesting each time he revisits them.

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But this year the Spectator found a present day interest in the town of his

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forefathers. He went down, to begin with, on Labor Day, in an automobile, which subordinated the historic points of the towns passed through to the points of their speed laws. Duxbury, it seemed, the town of Miles Standish, had set up an auto trap, the exact whereabouts of which on the road was doubtful at first. But a turn in the road brought into sudden view a home-made sign, on the territory of a Duxbury citizen with a heart for sport or a grudge against the selectmen, "*Auto trap ahead*," and that made plain sailing. The Pilgrim spirit is an independent one, down to the uttermost generation, and the Spectator does not envy the Duxbury selectmen the job of converting that single but undaunted citizen. Kingston and Plymouth did not seem to be troubling themselves about enforcing speed laws; but, as a matter of fact, only one automobile met along the road appeared to be breaking them. It passed the Spectator's party in a cloud of dust, and sped out of sight along the gray ribbon of road among the woods, bearing a veiled and goggled crew whom the early Puritans would have grimly hanged as witches. The Pilgrims, among other reasonablenesses of which their descendants are justly proud, did not even arrest or try people as witches, let alone execute them.

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The Spectator is sure, indeed, that Standish and Bradford would have enjoyed the Labor Day sports in Plymouth that morning. They objected to Merrymount, indeed, but not for its athletics, but its morals. The sports at Plymouth, provided by a big cordage manufacturing company for its employees, are a great annual excitement in the Pilgrim town nowadays, but a thoroughly healthy one. The company provides its men with a field for the sports every Labor Day, and with tents for an annual exhibition of flowers, vegetables, poultry, etc., entered by the workers and their families; also with prizes and ribbons for the same. The cost of it all is about two thousand dollars. These things provided, the employees do the rest, managing it all themselves, and the result is a field-day for all Plymouth, which crowds the tents and the grass, and enjoys itself to the full, with much enthusiasm and no disorder.

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From the big white tents, as the automobile passed them, came the cheerful crow of a prize rooster, but there was no time to go in and look at him, for the potato and spoon race, by ten girls, was on, and the party hurried to the track. A large grand-stand, in spite of lowering clouds, was packed full, and later comers stood three deep around the ropes that marked off the course. It takes good rope to stand such a strain, but this was made on the premises. They tell the story, by the way, of a North Carolina sheriff who wrote to this company that a rope was needed for a coming execution. If it was duly advertised, in announcing the hanging, that the rope came from the Plymouth rope-walks, would the company make a reduction in price, and if so, how much? It is needless to say that the company declined the advertisement. "*Se non è vero, è ben trovato.*"

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The Spectator looked around him—at the eager contestants, at the judges, at the family groups on the stand and the grass—and realized that here were pilgrims of a longer journey than the Mayflower. In the elder faces one saw Germany and France and Italy; in the children, the unmistakable American look emerging upon foreign features. It was a Giuseppina that won the blue ribbon. It was a Gustav who conquered in the next contest, which was of a peculiarly picturesque nature to the Spectator's mind. Six boys in their early teens were ranged before a board on which six currant pies, large and juicy, were reposing on plates, unaccompanied by knives or forks. The conditions of the contest were that no boy could use his hands, and that the one who finished his pie first won the prize. Gustav was the undoubted victor, finishing several seconds ahead. Part of the juice was in his ears, and his whole countenance resembled a Turner sunset, but otherwise the pie was gone. The Spectator was thoughtlessly enjoying it, when the Puritan con-

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science, never absent on New England shores, asserted itself behind him. "No boy ought to be given a prize for eatin' pie that way. Sakes alive! think of the trouble it is trainin' 'em to eat right, day in and day out!"

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To the other sports, however, no conscientious objection could be taken. Relay races, walking match, obstacle race—they were well contested and exciting. A tall Yankee won one of them away from a graceful Italian, but it was an Italian who came in first in a walking match, while a sturdy German plodded far in the rear, walking steadily to the end, at least five minutes after the winner had crossed the line. A slim Italian girl won the girls' running race. Two small girls, pressing eagerly upon the rope by the Spectator's side, watched her receive the purse. "She won three dollars last year," commented one of them, "and she spent it all for candy and lemonade right away." "Just look!" said the other; "there she goes, right over to the ice-cream place!" And, sure enough, the fleet-footed Italian Atalanta spent her substance immediately in treating herself and various small brothers and sisters to vanilla and strawberry. All the children looked well dressed and well fed, and there was a pleasant air of prosperity indeed about these modern pilgrims and their families.

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In the tents the evidence of hard work, ability, and good taste was great. The Spectator, having seen the terracing and intensive gardening of the shores of Italy, was not surprised to see the fine exhibits of fruit and vegetables by the Italians. On one table the premiums had been awarded to a German, a Frenchman, and an Italian, side by side, while the Italian's wife boasted another ribbon for her fine embroidery and knitted lace exhibit in the second tent. The Spectator remembers no New England county fair that could compete with this Labor Day show in respect to embroidery and handiwork generally. There were vegetables, too, that rural America generally knows nothing about, such as kohlrabi and Swiss chard, and there were exhibits of many novel forms of macaroni, which looked good enough to eat on the spot, and there were alien but tempting preserves and sweetmeats, to say nothing of German *Kuchen* of highly delectable appearance.

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Twelve gardens in the vicinity were on show, having won the twelve prizes offered by the company. They were simply the front and back yards of the semi-detached frame houses in which the families lived. The first prize was won by an Italian workman in one of the lower grades of work. His little lawn was of a velvet to rival Newport; his walks were cut to perfection, and the flowers on one side of his back garden plot, and the vegetables on the other, were above reproach in every respect. Those who tremble at the flood of immigration from southern Italy may be reassured to learn that it is the Calabrian peasant, from the classic land of the brigands, who wins often in these annual garden competitions at Plymouth, and approves himself all the year round a sober and industrious citizen of the Pilgrim town.

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Few of these industrial pilgrims, the Spectator was told, ever go back to the Old World, except, perhaps, to visit their old homes and act as missionaries to bring others back with them. What the men of the Mayflower conquered for all time, here in the wilderness—liberty, faith, opportunity—they recognize and accept as a heritage bequeathed to them, too, by the Pilgrim Fathers; and so the past and the present of the old town blend in one, and Plymouth Rock is not alien to the sports of Labor Day.

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THE ADVENTURES OF AN AVERAGE MAN WITH A MOTOR-CAR

BY LEE MERIWETHER

Author of "A Tramp Trip Through Europe," "Afloat and Ashore," etc., etc.

AUTOMOBILES are much cheaper than they used to be; likewise they are simpler and easier to keep in order. But, in spite of this, the impression still prevails that to own a motor car one must be a good mechanic or else have a big bank account. Now, it would be hard to find a man with less mechanical sense than I have, while as to bank accounts—well, mine really isn't big enough to talk about. Nevertheless, although only a professional man with a modest law practice, the sight of automobiles whizzing along our boulevards and country roads fascinated me; and, after thinking the matter over, I decided to get one. It proved anything but easy to make the right kind of selection. A millionaire may change his motor-car as he changes his coat, to suit the style and season; but a man of moderate means, if he indulges at all, must make his choice last long and travel far. I knew that whatever automobile I bought would be the only one I could afford for a number of years, so I went to an automobile show, and spent three days making a conscientious effort to understand what the different agents told me. But, being absolutely ignorant of things mechanical, the end of the three days found me completely muddled by conflicting and confusing stories of planetary transmissions, sliding gears, jump sparks, and the hundred and one other parts of a gasoline engine. The result was that I disregarded the claims of all the automobile agents and went back to St. Louis, and said to an acquaintance of mine, an expert mechanic who is not in the automobile business, consequently has no ax to grind:

"Here is $1,500. Please buy me the best auto you can get for that amount of money. And be sure you choose the one that is nearest fool-proof—by which I mean the automobile least liable to get out of order, and, once out of order, the one that is the easiest and simplest to get back in order."

This scheme worked well, and I think it a good plan for any professional man to follow in buying a motor-car. A novice is too apt to make his selection from outside appearances. There is a certain automobile sold for $1,200 which is larger and more luxurious-looking than my $1,500 machine. Left to myself I should certainly have chosen the $1,200 car, and I would have thought myself not only three hundred dollars to the good, but would also have imagined myself the owner of a better car. That is because my untrained eye was concerned with the upholstery instead of with the gasoline engine. My mechanical friend said there were half a dozen features about the "Get-there" any one of which was worth the extra price. And he was right, as subsequent experience demonstrated.

The automobile selected by my expert mechanical friend was a twenty-horse-power two-cylinder touring-car seating five persons. I dubbed it the "Get-there," not because that is its name, but because when I start out in it I feel perfectly sure that I will get to my destination. The trip won't be fast—the machine won't make above thirty miles an hour—but it does "get there" through all kinds of weather, over all kinds of roads. And that is what I wanted rather than excessive speed. In my opinion, a man with a family dependent upon him has no right to risk his life needlessly. And it *is* risking your life to drive a motor-car at a rate of speed much higher than thirty miles an hour.

A careless coachman who forgets to grease his carriage-axles causes no particular damage. You hear the wheels squeak, and make John get out his axle-grease when the drive is ended. But let a careless chauffeur forget to put oil

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in the automobile's oil-tank or grease in the grease-cup, and in the course of an afternoon's ride ball-bearings, axles, and differentials may be damaged to the extent of a hundred dollars. As the average chauffeur *is* careless, automobiling is doubtless quite as expensive as it is popularly supposed to be, in cases where the owner does not look after his own car. But if I may judge by my own experience, expenses may be kept within reasonable limits if the owner is willing to be his own chauffeur—and, if one is only fond of such things, looking after an automobile is jolly good fun. My Get-there engine is so simple that, tyro that I am in mechanical things, I quickly learned how to find and how to remedy any of the ordinary troubles with which motor-cars are afflicted; and not only did I have a lot of fun investigating the mysteries of this wonderful invention that men call a motor-car, but the fact that I learned a little about the engine has kept me out of the repair man's hands—quite an item when it is remembered that in garages repairs are charged for at the rate of seventy-five cents an hour, and usually thirty minutes is reckoned an hour.

Garages charge from $20 to $25 a month for storage; a carpenter charged me $75 to build in my back yard a shed with a granatoid floor. The shed is provided with a water faucet and electric lights, and the houseman who attends to my furnace now adds to the usual duties of a houseman those of an automobile hostler. Thus is the $20 or $25 a month garage charge eliminated; and that is not all. I get gasoline direct from the Standard Oil Company for fifteen cents a gallon, as against twenty to twenty-five cents a gallon, the price charged in garages. How much, then, does it cost to keep an automobile? That, of course, is a question to which it is not possible to give a definite answer; one man is reckless, drives pellmell over rough roads and sharp stones, and, even if he does not have a costly accident, is at any rate certain to cut his tires up. Another man goes slow over rough places, avoids sharp stones, and has small tire bills. One man may drive a thousand miles a month; another man may drive only two or three hundred miles. The gasoline and oil bills of the former are naturally much larger than those of the second man. Having no garage rent to pay, and getting my gasoline and oil at wholesale prices; moreover, having a car built on right principles and looking after it myself and exercising some common sense and caution in driving it—all this has made automobiling thus far cost me somewhere between $18 and $20 a month.

In most of the expense estimates I have seen in newspapers and magazines I note an allowance of from 30 to 50 per cent. per year for depreciation of motor-car. It may be that were I to try to sell the Get-there I could not realize more than half I paid for it a year ago, and in that sense it *has* depreciated fifty per cent. But there has been no fifty per cent depreciation in the value of the car to me. Indeed, so far as I can see, the Get-there goes as well to-day as it ever did. And from this it must not be supposed that my rides have been confined to city boulevards and park drives. On the contrary, the Get-there was put to a test to which few motorists subject their cars—a three-thousand-mile cross-country trip over all sorts of roads, in all kinds of weather, with a novice at the wheel. I bought the Get-there in March, 1906, did not learn to run it until May, and in July began a ride from Missouri to Maine via Chicago, New York, Long Island, the Berkshire Hills, and Boston. The courts having closed, a lawyer friend of mine, whom I call the Major, accepted my invitation to go on the trip, and after chucking a couple of suit-cases filled with clothing into the tonneau, and piling up on top of the suit-cases extra tires, rain-coats, and odds and ends, we started off in search of fresh air, change of scenery, and adventure. The friends who assembled to witness the start at the Missouri Athletic Club, a short block from the St. Louis end of the Eads Bridge, prophesied that we would get no further than Belleville, an Illinois town fifteen miles from St. Louis. In reality we got as far as Sebago Lake, in Maine, but as we waved our hands at the crowd on the Club steps and started across the Eads Bridge it must be confessed that we ourselves did not have much confidence

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that we would get anywhere in particular. The Major knew absolutely nothing about automobiles, and at that time my knowledge on the subject was confined to knowing how to crank up the engine and manage the steering-wheel. One friend, Dr. M., cheered us with the prediction that we would break down within a dozen miles; it was unreasonable, said Dr. M., to suppose that two fellows who didn't know a spark plug from a disc clutch could "auto" from St. Louis to New York. Secretly we believed Dr. M. was accurate, painfully accurate, in making this prediction; nevertheless we kept on. We knew there would always be a railway close by, and our plan was to keep going until our automobile refused to move, or our vacation ended; then, when either of those events occurred, wherever we happened to be at the time we would take the railway back to St. Louis.

After crossing the Eads Bridge and passing through East St. Louis we turned north and headed for Springfield, Illinois, where we planned to stop the first night. Springfield is only one hundred miles from St. Louis, but it took us four days to get there. This was not because of any fault of the Get-there. Far from it; a $5,000 French car could not have behaved more beautifully than did our two-cylinder twenty-horse-power affair. The trouble was with the State of Illinois, which has a system of roads that makes even a pious motorist lose his religion. When dry, Illinois roads are deep in dust; when not dry, they are deep in mud. No rain had fallen for weeks prior to that July morning when we so gayly crossed the bridge connecting Missouri with Illinois, and for a dozen miles or more the dust was fully six inches deep. Then a cloud seemed to blow up from nowhere, without the slightest warning, and burst right over our heads. At first it was great fun; we had rain-coats, and didn't mind the water splashing in our faces. But after a while that dust turned into mud, and our wheels began to slip and slide and skid, and it seemed as if each moment we would plunge into one or the other of the two deep ditches that ran along each side of the road. We did not know then, what we learned later, that our stanch little Get-there could do almost anything except climb a tree. Previous to that day my motoring had been confined to the boulevards and parks of St. Louis; consequently, when the Get-there began to settle almost up to the axles in mud and the wheels began to slip and skid from side to side, I feared each moment would see us stuck hard and fast, and at the first farm-house I stopped the engine and told the Major to see if we could be taken in for the night. Climbing down from his seat, the Major waded through the mud to the gate, and was on the point of entering the yard when a surly, disagreeable-looking dog nearly as large as a yearling calf came bounding down the hillside. The dog did not say anything; he was one of the silent kind, all bite and no bark. And so the Major changed his mind about opening that gate. Instead, he formed a funnel with his hands, put them to his mouth, and emitted a cry that would have done credit to a fog-horn. The noise brought to the door of the farm-house a tall, rough-looking man, who eyed us solemnly but spoke no word.

"Will your dog bite?" asked the Major.

"Guess he will," said the farmer.

Hearing this, we naturally supposed the man's next move would be to call that dog off. But he did nothing of the kind. He simply stood and eyed us while that villainous-looking dog sniffed ominously through the fence-rails at the Major's legs.

"I say, you, call your dog off!" yelled the Major. "We are in a bad fix. We want to see you about getting a bed and a bite of supper."

The plight we were in was obvious, but it awakened no compassion in the breast of that farmer. He eyed us a moment in silence, then, without a word, deliberately turned on his heels and entered the house and closed the door behind him. I have seen many men with comical expressions, but never have I seen quite so funny a look as that which then came over my friend the Major. At first he looked as if he would explode, and I fear he did use some strong language. But presently the absurdity of the thing struck him, and he burst out laughing.

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"The idiot thought we meant to sponge on him," he said. I answered that, even so, he was a curmudgeon to turn us away in such a storm. "Well, at any rate we won't give the next farmer a chance to misunderstand us," said the Major. "I shall tell him promptly that we mean to pay him well for his hospitality. That will insure us the best he has. These fellows will do anything for money."

My friend was sadly mistaken, as we discovered at the next house. It was quite dark when we got there, and the Major climbed down into the mud, took off one of the lamps and pointed it over the fence into the yard. This time no dog appeared to dispute the way, so the Major climbed over the fence and walked up to the house. It sat too far back for me to hear what was said by the man who came to the door, but after a while the Major returned, cranked up the engine, climbed back into his seat, and said savagely, "Drive on."

"What's the matter?" I asked. "Don't you want to stop?"

"Not there," responded the Major. "I wouldn't stop with those people if the mud were ten times deeper and if it were raining brickbats instead of water."

Again we started off through that horrible mud, and it was some minutes before my friend cooled off enough to explain. Then he said: "Inside of that house the table was set for supper. When the man opened the door I saw the fried ham and eggs and coffee, and it smelt good, awful good, to me, out there in the wet and the darkness. But that oaf wouldn't take us in even when I offered a dollar apiece for supper and five dollars for a bed. Now, a fellow who would turn away a man on a night like this would put poison in your coffee, and I wouldn't stay with him even if he agreed to take us in. That is why I said to drive on."

That drenching rain was so dispiriting, and the prospect of becoming stuck in the mud seemed so strong, that I was not at all inclined to be fastidious; I was willing to take chances on poison being put in my coffee; but, unluckily, we found no one willing to give us either bed or supper. Illinois roads are so bad that few automobiles traverse them; the result is that Illinois horses are not accustomed to the smell of gasoline or to the whir of wheels; and, being unfamiliar with automobiles, when they see one they bolt and run, sometimes smashing the farmer's wagon or buggy, and on occasion even breaking his neck. Under such circumstances the Illinois farmer's dislike of motorists is logical. But being logical did not make the situation any the less trying to us, and during the long hours of that drenching rain we said some bitter things about Illinois hospitality.

It was nearly midnight when at last the Get-there, a mass of mud, of black, sticky clay mud, staggered and lurched and skidded into the town of Litchfield, only sixty miles out from St. Louis. Litchfield, Illinois, is not a wildly interesting town, still we stayed there three days—waiting for the roads to dry. And such is the quality and consistency of the soil in that section of country that even after three days of July sunshine much mud remained. But that first day's experience made us less nervous at the sight of a bad road. The man who drives only on boulevards and parkways becomes flustered the first time he strikes a bog; but one day's journey in Illinois during a rainstorm will make him feel confident of mastering almost any kind of a road. Had we needed any additional schooling, it was supplied to us a couple of hours after venturing out of Litchfield. In most places those three days of sunshine had sufficed to dry up the mud, but some thirty miles toward Springfield the road was low and marshy, and presently it became a veritable bog. This very bad place did not extend far, not more than sixty feet, but it lay clear across the road from fence to fence, and there was no getting around it; we had either to plow through that sixty feet of bog or turn back and hunt for another road, which, when found, might be as bad as or worse than the place before us.

The Get-there stopped at the edge of that dirty-looking bog, and for fully ten minutes we debated whether to turn back or to try to get through; the latter course was finally decided on, with the result that a few minutes later we found

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ourselves half-way across the bog, with our wheels up to the hubs in mud and our engine as dead as Hector. It was a rueful look that I gave the Major, and that the Major gave me. I stood up on the seat, and looked up and down the road like a shipwrecked mariner surveying the horizon for a sail. And I felt like the mariner who sees a sail when I perceived, coming down the road, a farm wagon drawn by two stout horses.

"We are all right," I said. "Those farmers will pull us out."

When the farmers reached the edge of the bog, I called out to them and asked if they would hire their horses for a few minutes. We had a tow-rope in our tonneau, and with the help of those horses five minutes would see us out of trouble. The farmers looked at us and laughed; even when I offered them five, and afterwards ten, dollars they refused to loan their horses. Ordinarily one has no trouble hiring a couple of farm horses for a week for ten dollars; but, as I have said, Illinois farmers dislike motorists. It was worth more than ten dollars to those farmers to see a couple of "automobile fellers" stuck in the mud; so they simply grinned at us. And that made the Major hopping mad. "If there's any way in God's world to get out of this," said he, "let's do it, if only to spite those scoundrels. Tell me what I can do?"

"You can get out and crank the engine," I answered. "And then you can keep on cranking it every time it 'goes killed.' Even if we make only six inches at a time, that will help some. And maybe we will get out some time."

The Major made a wry face at the thought of getting into that bog, but he was game; he took off his shoes and socks, rolled his trousers up above his knees, and got down and turned the crank. I threw the lever into slow speed, turned the throttle full on, and the next minute there was a series of explosions, one following quickly on the heels of the other, like the fire of a rapid-repeating rifle. The explosions were due to the excessive heat of the engine; the desperate struggle to get out of that sticky mud made even the muffler hot, consequently, in addition to the explosions in the cylinders, the half-burned gas in the muffler also exploded; and the racket was so great that the farm horses reared and plunged and broke their traces and ran off down the road. The first spurt pushed us forward less than eighteen inches, then the engine stopped short. But the Major, who had remained standing above his knees in the mud, turned the crank again. And this time I threw the lever into the reverse and backed up a couple of feet. Then, throwing the lever forward, I started with a rush. The open rut allowed a little impetus, and when the engine stopped again it was after a gain of several feet. This backing, then rushing forward a foot or two, was repeated again and again—slow work, but in the end it landed us out of that bog, greatly to the disgust of the two farmers. They were so certain that we could not get out that they had not run after their horses, but had remained seated in their wagon watching our struggle, and never doubting that we were stuck for good. After this experience we never encountered roads or weather that we thought bad enough to warrant us in stopping or turning back. And before the trip ended we ran into some pretty tough places. For example, in northern Ohio for twenty miles approaching Illyria the Get-there plowed through mud up to the axles. Again, between Syracuse and Utica, New York, there was a succession of hills that were frightfully steep and horribly muddy; and entering Utica itself, the main street of the city was worse than an Arkansaw bottom. Indeed, there seemed to be no bottom to that Utica street. After plowing through that morass of sticky, glue-like mud we felt safe on any road.

The distance by rail from St. Louis to New York is less than twelve hundred miles, but our speedometer registered 1,410 miles as we stopped at Thirty-fourth Street and Fifth Avenue in front of the Waldorf-Astoria. That was because we went by way of Chicago and the Berkshire Hills in Massachusetts, besides making two other side trips. In running that 1,410 miles 156 gallons of gasoline were consumed, at a cost of $28.56, an average of only nine miles per gallon—a low average, due to hill-

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climbing in the Berkshires and to deep mud driving in Illinois, Ohio, and New York. On good roads we made as much as twenty miles per gallon of gasoline. There is hardly any road that a twenty-horse-power *light*-weight automobile won't pull through on low speed, but you burn up a lot of gasoline doing it. I think we must have used up a gallon a mile on that frightful trip to Litchfield.

Between St. Louis and New York we used about two dollars' worth of oil; and we paid fifty cents a night in some places, and a dollar in other places, for storing the Get-there. Beyond this the automobile cost very little. Such accidents as occurred were trifles which we ourselves had no trouble in repairing. True, the first time something happened we felt pretty blue. Had we been in St. Louis we would have 'phoned the nearest garage and would have spent fifteen or twenty dollars in an effort not to learn how to avoid trouble. But being on a country road twenty miles from nowhere, it was up to us to find what was the matter. And we did it. It meant four hours' work on a dusty road under a July sun—which was not pleasant—but it also meant that we were learning our car. And the man who understands his auto need never fear not "getting there"—except, of course, in case of an all-around smash-up. Naturally, the man who gets gay and speedy and ambitious to break records will also be likely to break his automobile, if not his neck.

We had altogether seven punctures. The first one, between Joliet and Chicago, we fixed in three hours; the seventh one, on Commonwealth Avenue as we were entering Boston, we fixed in thirty minutes. That is the difference between knowing how and in not knowing a lug from a valve-stem. It goes without saying that if you motor across country you must rough it. The "finicky" man, the man who can't abide dusty clothes and now and then a bit of grease on his hands, ought not to take a motor trip. Such a man should stick to asphalt streets. If he does this, and employs a chauffeur, he may manage to look a little less mussed up than the man who motors over country roads; but he will miss a lot of fun and adventure, and good, wholesome exercise. Even the hardships of our trip were enjoyable—at any rate, in retrospection. I recall, for instance, an episode near Amenia, New York. Just after passing through that village we came to the longest, steepest hill of the whole fourteen-hundred-and-ten-mile journey. The road zigzagged up the hill for two miles, and it was so steep that even on slow speed it was all we could do to climb it. Well, when about a mile from the bottom and another mile from the top, our engine stopped as suddenly as if a cannon-ball had struck it. Only instant application of the emergency brake, re-enforced by the Major leaping from his seat and hastily placing big boulders under the wheels, prevented the Get-there from rolling backward down the mountain. The trouble? Why, it was the simplest of all the troubles that befall a motorist—our gasoline was out. We had started from St. Louis with a two-gallon can of gasoline stuck away in the tonneau along with the suit-cases, rain-coats, and other impedimenta; for a thousand miles we kept that can for use in an emergency. Then, only that very morning, in Pittsfield, Massachusetts, the Major had emptied those two emergency gallons of gasoline into our tank and thrown the can away. We had found gasoline at every cross-roads all the way from Missouri, and it seemed foolish to keep a big can sloshing around against our coats and suit-cases. But now we knew that we had been foolish to throw that can away.

"You did it," I said to the Major, "and now it is you who will walk back to Amenia and lug a heavy can of gasoline up this mountain."

The scenery about Amenia is picturesque, and I cannot say it was altogether bad fun sitting under the shade of a tree looking down upon the green fields of the valley far below me. But somehow the Major did not enjoy it as much as I did. At least he did not seem hilarious an hour later when he hove in sight with a big can in one hand and in the other hand a handkerchief, with which he ever and anon mopped the sweat off his face. I tried to cheer him by speaking of the healthfulness of his exercise, but he

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seemed blind to the hygienic advantages of walking.

"You can cut that out," he said, in a tone that seemed seasoned with ill-temper. "Cut that out, and let's be going. This spot is beastly hot."

It was not hot; it was the two-mile walk, carrying a heavy can filled with gasoline, that made it seem hot to the Major. But I did not argue the matter. My friend seemed in no mood for argument. I poured the gasoline into the tank, turned the crank, and a few minutes later we were at the top of the mountain, bowling along toward Poughkeepsie at an exhilarating speed that soon restored the Major's equanimity.

At New York my wife joined us, and, after a side trip on Long Island, we started for Boston. From Boston we went to Portland, Maine, and thence to Sebago Lake. From that picturesque spot in the pine forests of Maine we wrote our friend Dr. M. to tell him what a poor prophet he was. Dr. M. had said we would get no further than Belleville, and here we were in the Maine woods after two thousand miles of motoring without a single mishap worth mentioning. The secret of the thing was this: we had the right kind of an automobile—a machine built on right principles, and so simple that even we, who knew nothing of machinery, had no trouble in understanding it. Our chief expense was extra tires. Rough roads, especially wet roads, play havoc with rubber. At the end of our vacation our speedometer registered 6,217 miles, and we had been obliged to get three new outer casings. It is fair to add, however, that the worn tires were retreaded at a cost of from $10 to $13 each, and that they were then, at the end of the trip, in fair condition.

Friends have asked where we found good roads. With the exception of the approaches to large cities—Chicago, Cleveland, Ohio, Buffalo, and New York—I may say we found few good roads in any State except Massachusetts. In Illlnois no pretense is made at good roads. Between Hammond, Indiana, and South Bend there is a good road. For thirty miles east of South Bend the road is fair. Then as you approach the Ohio State line the roads fall into the Illinois habit of being either deep dust or deep mud. We had much fun finding the Napoleon, Ohio, pike. Whenever we complained of bad roads in that section of Ohio, people would say, "Yes, the roads hereabouts are pretty bad, but just wait till you strike the Napoleon pike. *Then* you will see something."

Naturally, this sort of talk aroused lively expectations, but, alas! when we arrived at the Napoleon Pike we did not know it. For that celebrated road was made of mud and dust, just like the other Ohio roads. All the way from Missouri the good roads were just fifty miles ahead of us. "The roads are bad here, but it is all right when you get to Blank." That was what everybody told us. And Blank was always some forty or fifty miles beyond the place where we got the information. A common delusion that seemed to exist everywhere except in New York was that New York roads are good for motoring. The truth is that New York has some of the worst roads we encountered. The road east from Buffalo is splendid for thirty miles, then it is as bad as bad can be until Utica is reached. After Utica the subject won't bear discussion. It is not possible for a motorist to speak of the roads around Utica without indulging in language that should not be used. The approach to Albany is a close second to the approach to Utica; the so-called "Albany Pike" consists of two strips of stone slabs, with a ditch between the two rows of slabs, and also a ditch on either side of them; this compels people to travel on those two strips of stone. And the Pike is a hundred times worse than the famous Rocky Road to Dublin, for deep holes and ruts have been worn in those stone slabs, and you bump up and down in a way that may be good for your liver, but is very hard on automobiles. Bumping over this remarkable pike is not conducive either to good looks or to good temper; when we reached Albany the Get-there was covered with mud, and we too were well bespattered. The impression our appearance made was not altered by a question the Major asked of a policeman in front

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of the State Capitol. Twenty years ago, when in Albany, the Major stopped at the Delavan House; he had never been to Albany since, and knew of no other hotel there. So when he saw the policeman, the Major asked him to direct us to the Delavan House. Staring at both of us, much as he might have stared at Rip Van Winkle when he came down from the mountains, ragged and dirty after his twenty years' sleep, that Albany policeman exclaimed: "Great Scott! the Delavan House burned to the ground fifteen years ago!" "In that case," replied the Major, politely, "we will go to another hotel." And we did.

Does a motor trip pay? There were moments when the Major thought not—for instance, when he had to stand in that bog and crank the engine fifty times. And again when he toiled up that mile-long mountain carrying a can of gasoline. But now that those moments are over, the Major and my wife say a motor trip is not only a jolly good way to spend a vacation, but that it is also an excellent way to store up health and strength and avoid acquaintance with doctor's bills. The only regret my wife has is that she shared Dr. M.'s skepticism and refused to start with us at St. Louis; she had no idea we would succeed in making the Get-there go. But when we reached New York without an accident, her confidence was as great as her distrust had been before, and she promises to be ready for another six weeks' cross-country trip just as soon as the summer vacation begins.

COLLEGE ATHLETICS

BY ROGER ALDEN DERBY

For two years Mr. Derby was a member of the Harvard University football team. In 1903 he played left tackle; in 1904 right tackle. In each year he played in the Yale-Harvard game. He is the author of the article on the Harvard-Yale race published in The Outlook Magazine Number for July.—THE EDITORS.

THE true object of organized athletics at any given institution of learning is to promote the physical welfare of the undergraduates, to encourage them to participate in stimulating games, and to derive from these games the benefits of fresh air, exercise, and that training of mind and body that only organized athletics can give. The term organized athletics is used to distinguish games in which team play is introduced from such sports as shooting, riding, etc. Furthermore, a comprehensive system should be designed to develop the bodies of the weak as well as those of the strong, and instill in all a habit of and love for out-of-door exercise. Exactly how far these objects are realized can be best determined by an examination of the condition of athletics at the various colleges and universities of the country.

As conditions exist to-day, participation in sports, far from being general, is restricted to a small body of carefully selected and trained athletes, upon whom the entire effort and interest of the institution is lavished. These men represent the active athletic class as distinguished from the student or social classes, and on them devolves the task of representing their Alma Mater in games with rival institutions. The other members of the college or university are quite content to sit on the side lines or in the grand stands and cheer these representatives to that desired end, victory, to idolize them if they win and generally to execrate them if they lose.

In football, for instance, the head coach, several weeks before the beginning of the season, selects a squad of men varying in size with the size of the college—seldom, however, larger than one hundred. These are all men of robust enough body and health to be possible members of the university team. All others are dispensed with, for there is no time to be lost or energy to be wasted on unlikely candidates. By a gradual process of elimination and the survival of the fittest, this squad is

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weeded out, until towards the end of the season some twenty-five or thirty men are left, from whom the first team is chosen. These men become for the time being the popular heroes and idols of the community; their characters are widely discussed; their pictures, together with short sketches of their lives, appear in the daily papers; and their every ailment is watched with the gravest concern. When the final match of the season is to be played, victory alone is asked of them; their success or failure as an organization depends on the result of this one game, by which they are to be judged. If they win, the season is deemed a successful one; and if they lose, it is deemed a failure. Everything that money can buy—and there is always plenty of money available—and every scheme that the best and most scientific of athletic minds can devise, are used to this end, as if the very existence of the university depended on its accomplishment. The work of the team is of necessity so strenuous that only men of exceptional physical development and stamina can stand the strain of a season.

So much depends on the accomplishment of results and the winning of games that effort must be centralized. The reputation of the coach and the prestige of the institution do not allow any waste of effort and energy. The coaching must be devoted to the few likely candidates; the others serve no useful purpose on the field and can be best organized into noise cohorts to seminate enthusiasm, or, as particularly applies to baseball, by well-directed efforts to rattle the opponents. Commercialism, which makes necessary the enormous gate receipts, is introduced by the presence of an army of rubbers, trainers, and hangers-on, engaged to devote their attention to the university team, and to the university team alone, and also by the wanton expenditures in football clothing and armor, most of which would be unnecessary if victory were not the theme of the athletic season. The scope of the sport as a promoter of good health and manly qualities is narrowed as finely as it well can be, and the real, broad definition of athletics is distorted.

In other words, the football system in vogue in American universities to-day has become a process of elimination by which the best-endowed athletes are selected, to be developed into a highly trained organization, with the ultimate object of defeating a similar organization from a rival university.

The lot of the few men called upon to bear the brunt of the season's work is scarcely a pleasant one. In order to develop an efficient team much drudgery must be gone through with, and complicated maneuvers and formations must be learned, and tremendous responsibility must be shouldered. This handful of regulars play the game throughout the day to the exclusion of everything else—their time, morning, afternoon, and evening, is taken up by practice, séances with masseurs, and lectures on strategy, until every atom of possible pleasure is eliminated.

Of course at many of the colleges and universities class and scrub teams do exist, but as the entire attention of the institution is directed to the university team, they receive but little support or expert coaching. The incentive for advancement from these teams to the university squad is almost entirely absent by reason of the early selection of the promising men. Unfortunately, a university team and club system rarely run together without the latter suffering enormously.

This same condition of affairs pertains to the other sports, varying as their importance varies, being less strenuous perhaps in baseball and rowing, but equally harmful in the case of the latter.

Baseball, perhaps, is the most popular of all the games; it requires little training and is of that type that lends itself peculiarly to scrub organizations. We often hear it called the National game because it is the one most entirely evolved by American genius; but who has attended an intercollegiate match and has not observed the very features most harmful to our athletics? There the noise cohorts are at their best, because they have the greatest opportunity to confuse the opposing team. The very fact of its popularity and the high standard of play demanded by the undergraduates tends towards the early selection of the most skillful

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players for the university team. Despite this, baseball can be least criticised for a lack of general participation, though its morals are far from perfect.

Track athletics, because of its varied possibilities, draws a large number of men; but, for the reason that a first team must be picked early in the season, it resolves itself immediately into an undesirable process of elimination. Trials and games are held from time to time, not so much with the idea of stimulating interest in the sport as to find out the best and most efficient men in the college.

Rowing reveals concentration of effort at its worst. It is the most difficult of all to become proficient in, and requires months of severe training. Consequently the crews are practically chosen in the fall of the year, and are made to row tirelessly until the spring.

Harvard affords us a splendid illustration of a reversion from a good to a bad system merely to enable her to compete on an equal footing with her oldest rival. For years the Cambridge university held to a system of club crews and amateur coaches that, though they were splendid in themselves, continually led her to defeat on the river at the hands of Yale. From 1897 to 1904 the Harvard University crew was never picked until after May 1, and until that date the Varsity oarsmen rowed on their Weld and Newell Club class crews. Towards the end of April races were held, on the basis of which the head coach selected the men from whom he expected to pick the crew to meet Yale. Yale, on the other hand, selected her most promising candidates early in the fall, and rowed them without change until the race in June, under a competent professional coach and continuous system. Though the Harvard crews were all of exceptional caliber, they were never fully developed at the time of the annual contest, and only once in those eight years did they succeed in defeating Yale. Unquestionably the Harvard system promoted sport at Cambridge far better than the Yale system could ever hope to do at New Haven, but Yale consistently won.

For the eight years at Cambridge rowing was the most popular of all the sports; the river was crowded with eights, fours, and singles, and every undergraduate was prompted to participate because of the feeling that his chances for the University eight were as good as those of the man in front or behind him, and that the eyes of the head coach were constantly on him. The April races were epochs of the college year; it was worth while to work with such glowing chances for promotion. A fair field and no favor for two months of the rowing season gave Harvard the one incident to be most proud of in all her athletic history. In 1904 Harvard gave up her old ideas and resorted to the professional coach and close corporation methods, with the result that since that time she has defeated Yale in 1906 and rowed her the closest race on record in 1905, while the prospects for further victories in the future are excellent. But whether Harvard rowing will ever again have the broad influence it had between 1897 and 1904 depends entirely on whether she can induce Yale to adopt the club system, with the postponed date of choosing the University crew.

And here is the crux of the whole question. Harvard for a time lost consistently, but developed the finest athletic system that has ever been seen in any American college. She has abandoned that system in order to defeat Yale—a natural enough desire, for the interest in the annual contests at New London was waning; but what has she profited by the change? Surely at such a cost victory alone is a most undesirable end. We call an athletic season that has been crowned with victory a success, when in reality it has been a dismal failure. Harvard may have defeated Yale at rowing, or Michigan may have defeated Chicago at football, but what has the student body at either of the institutions gained by the victory?

In a sense all this is National, for the American boy is as much imbued with the desire to win and make good as is the American man; both are vigorous and both are unquestionably virile. Furthermore, concentration of effort has thousands of examples in this country, and it is only natural, when victory is the desideratum, that the American boys

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should adopt the methods that have made their fathers the most successful men in the world.

We lack a sane and normal point of view, and it is now necessary for the educators of the country not only to protest against present conditions, but to adopt new systems which will lessen the rivalry in intercollegiate athletics and generalize the interest.

To begin with, no university teams or crews should be formed until at most a month before the end of the seasons. Until that time the playing should be entirely restricted to inter-class or inter-club teams as the system adopted.

Such a change, though perhaps not entirely obviating the present difficulties, would reduce them to a point where they would become practically harmless. More men would immediately be induced to participate, the present abnormal expenses would be tremendously lessened, and the overwrought state of excitement that now unavoidably accompanies an athletic campaign would disappear.

Suppose, for instance, that any two or three universities agreed to adopt such a plan in all their sports. Their external relations would be but little affected, though their internal conditions would be vastly improved. Of course it is evident that one university could not adopt such a plan and hope to compete on an equal footing with her rival who clung to present methods. A change, to be effective, would have to enlist a number of institutions.

The most important advantages to be gained would be the supplying to every undergraduate, first, an opportunity to play on a team composed of at least one or two men of exceptional ability; second, the incentive, now denied, of open competition for a place on the university team. The coaches who had previously devoted their entire energy to the few likely candidates would now direct that same energy to the club or class team with which they were particularly affiliated. In the case of a dormitory or club system being adopted, the rivalry would increase as each new unit entered the field; all would be working to excel, and at the same time general participation would raise the standard of play. The undergraduate who formerly felt that his duty was to sit in the grand stand and cheer the university team would be struggling for a position on his club team, and, quite unconsciously perhaps, doing his university vastly more good than when his efforts were purely vocal. Other advantages along these lines are quite easy to elaborate, and will naturally occur to any one at all aware of present athletic evils; it is sufficient for our purposes to enumerate only those of most vital importance.

Broadly speaking, the suggestion is as follows: The seasons of the various sports should be divided into two parts; the first, intra-university, and the second, inter-university. In the first a system of sectional division should be established, varying to meet the peculiar conditions of the institution, having as its object the popularization of the various forms of activity. Every effort to centralized energy on the varsity team or crew should be prohibited, and every effort to draw out and interest the weaker in body should be encouraged. At the close of this first part a series of sectional contests should be held as trials, on the basis of which the candidates for the university team could be chosen. The latter part of the season should be devoted towards developing a strong university team to meet the best teams of, at most, three or four rival institutions.

In order to accomplish this end the colleges and universities of the country would have to league themselves, probably, as they are leagued now in reference to their geographical positions—the Far West or Pacific slope, the Middle West, and the East; and naturally only those adopting this system could meet.

As a further reason for co-operation it would be well to agree to abolish professional coaches and trainers, and to reduce expenses to as low a point as possible. The scope of this article has not been wide enough to allow a discussion of the evils of professional or remunerated amateurs—the latter is perhaps in many cases a more accurate term. They are simply the outgrowth of an exaggerated spirit of competition, and should disappear when

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this spirit is reduced to a normal condition.

Athletics must be regarded as educational, of mental as well as physical value. It should form quite as valuable an asset to any given institution as the more purely academical pursuits. Granted this, it is for those directly in charge of the colleges and universities of this country to see that the true aim of athletics is not distorted and its great power for good not restricted.

A FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN NEEDED

BY ANDREW S. DRAPER

Commissioner of Education of the State of New York

THERE is very little adaptation of instruments or of administrative methods to ends, very little that is expressive of professional experience and opinion, and practically nothing in the way of logical scheme, or comprehensive plan, or progressive outlook, about the educational arrangements of the Federal Government. Congressional legislation has ordinarily resulted from isolated and political initiative, and executive officers have resorted to expedients, both good and bad, to meet passing exigencies. It has never been understood that the General Government had large or continuing educational responsibilities, and now, when it is clear enough that it has, the plans for meeting them are illogical and inadequate.

There is excuse for the situation, but none for not mending it. The Federal Constitution contains no mention of schools. Aside from a brief and barren suggestion of a National university, there was, so far as we know, no discussion of education in the Constitutional Convention. It was not an ignorant or obtuse Convention. Twenty-nine of the fifty-five members were college-bred, and of the twenty-six who were not, Washington and Franklin were two. Six members of the Convention were clergymen. The Convention clearly assumed that, so far as education was a function of government, it was a function of the States. There were less than a dozen primitive colleges in the country which had been chartered by the King, but in each case it had been done at the instance of one of the colonies, and the resulting college had become the college of the colony and then of the State. Several of the State constitutions had already provided for colleges. State-supported systems of elementary schools had not yet been provided by law or established in fact, but things were beginning to move rather strongly, for in the next half-dozen years definite and decisive beginnings in that direction were made. Wherever there *was* a State, the State had done and expected to do it all. Where there was no State, Congress felt responsibility and acted freely. Even before the Constitutional Convention the Continental Congress had, in 1785, reserved the lot No. 16, and one-third of all gold, silver, lead, and copper mines, for the maintenance of schools in each township which should be laid out in the Northwest Territory. And all are familiar with the provision in the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of that Territory, that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." So it is evident that the very definite and common understanding at the time of making the "more perfect union" must have been that the Federal Government had distinct responsibility about schools and morals in Federal territory beyond the limits of organized States, but that this function was reserved to the States wherever there were or whenever there should be organized States.

The practice has squared with this understanding. Congress has often legis-

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lated upon, and Federal executive officers have never hesitated to act upon, school matters in the Territories; never in the States. The United States Government has several times made gifts to education in the States, and has sometimes made these conditional upon certain acts by the States, but it has never invaded the principle that wherever there is a State the educational system is a State system, over which the State Government holds the exclusive and sovereign authority.

The United States Government in 1867 created a Federal Bureau of Education, which gathers and distributes educational information from and to all parts of the world, and has become a sort of clearing-house for information concerning the schools for all of the States of our Union; but it has never been invested with the slightest *authority* over any matter within the limit of a State. The present object, however, is not to emphasize that fact so much as to point out that this organized and quite natural instrumentality of Federal educational administration has never been utilized to meet the National responsibility for schools, recently much enlarged, or to propagate educational activities outside of the schools, in Federal territory, and to inquire why.

Let us recall the situation which has grown up. In the Territories of Arizona, Hawaii, New Mexico, and Oklahoma there are Superintendents of Public Instruction, appointed by the Territorial Governors. The Superintendents report to the Governors, who are appointed by the President, and the Governors make occasional references to education in their reports to the Secretary of the Interior. There is no professional and no located responsibility. The Bureau of Education has nothing whatever to do with the matter.

In the District of Columbia the management of the schools is intrusted to a Board of Education appointed by the Judges of the Supreme Court of the District. This Board appoints a Superintendent of Schools. The schools are supported, one-half by the District and one-half by the United States. The Bureau of Education has no relation to the subject. Once, at least, when the school system of the District got into a muddle, the United States Commissioner of Education was asked to intervene and straighten things out, but that was only a temporary expedient in an emergency.

Congress makes annual appropriations for the schools of the Cherokee, Creek, Choctaw, Chickasaw, and Seminole nations in the Indian Territory, and the Secretary of the Interior appoints a Superintendent of Schools for the Territory; but, again, the Bureau of Education has nothing to do with it.

The other Indian schools are under a superintendent appointed by the President, who reports to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs and is under the directions of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs and the Secretary of the Interior. The United States Commissioner of Education is allowed no official word concerning them.

A dual administrative scheme for managing schools seems to be deemed necessary for Alaska. Schools for white children and civilized children of mixed blood are under the supervision of the Governor, who is *ex officio* Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Congress makes appropriations for schools for natives, which are subject to the Secretary of the Interior and are in some measure, at his pleasure, committed by him to the Commissioner of Education.

The Military and Naval Academies are wholly subject to the Secretaries of War and of the Navy, and no distinct school man carries the light of his guild into the recesses of their affairs.

The educational activities of the Department of Agriculture have been much expanded and accelerated in recent years. Through appropriations to the agricultural colleges and experiment stations the Federal authority has already made rather long, but perhaps pardonable, inroads into old-time fundamental principles, but the Federal Bureau of Education has no word about them.

Perhaps, above all, the war with Spain brought to the people, and particularly to the Government, of the United States, for the first time, the difficult problems associated with the education of great

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numbers of unlettered people in somewhat densely settled territory under conditions wholly new to us.

As to Porto Rico, Congress provided that the President should appoint a Commissioner of Education who supervises public instruction and approves all disbursements on account thereof. The only function of the United States Commissioner of Education in this connection is that the law directs the Porto Rico Commissioner to make such reports to Congress as the United States Commissioner requires. The obfuscation assured by legally empowering an officer to define the reports which another officer with whom he has nothing else to do shall make to Congress is a novelty in legislation.

The general direction of educational matters in the Philippine Islands is committed to the Secretary of Public Instruction of the Islands, who is a member of the Philippine Commission. The United States Commissioner, or Bureau, of Education has not the slightest official relation to education in the Philippine Islands. All the functions exercised in the United States in that behalf are vested in the Bureau of Insular Affairs of the War Department.

The educational system of Cuba was reorganized in some measure during our military occupancy, but it was exclusively a military matter.

The reason for the lack of logical plan about all this has already been suggested, but what is the reason why no one in position to accomplish things seems to have thought of the desirability of correlating the growing educational work of the Government and giving it the advantage of guidance by the Federal Bureau of Education?

It cannot be because the National Bureau has been in inefficient hands. It has never been without a highly capable and efficient Commissioner at its head. During all of the forty years of the existence of the Bureau the Commissioner has been a man of very high public standing, and nearly all of that time he has been one of the foremost educationists of the country. For the seventeen years just prior to the recent appointment of Dr. Elmer Ellsworth Brown to the office, and while our insular cares were developing, the Commissioner has not only been a man much experienced in teaching and in the practical supervision of schools, but he has been the sanest educational philosopher and the readiest and most inspiring writer in the country upon the widest range of educational themes. There were strong men in the office before Dr. Harris. The present Commissioner was appointed for ample reasons. The staff of the Bureau has always embraced many educational experts whose services have been widely recognized by the people who are best informed. The one thing needful to the Bureau has been real school work to do.

The Government has not been studying the logic of the situation. It has permitted itself to be moved by inexperience, if not sordidness, and it has met exigency with makeshift. The fact that the makeshift was perhaps temporarily necessary ought not to be allowed to develop it into a permanent policy. We were all proud that the American regular troops could temporarily provide teachers for the Philippines, and it was a distinct administrative accomplishment to secure a thousand teachers of pretty fair general average, and to transport them to and get them at work among such a far-away people, without incurring criticism of the details of the heavy task. But even the powerful influence and excellent ways of Secretary Taft, who knows much about schools, cannot transform the atmosphere of the War Department into a permanent stimulant to constructive work in education.

It is important to education in all territory over which the flag of the Union floats that the principle shall be firmly established that the spirit of the common school system bars all partisanship from its administration, and also that the proper organization and administration of the schools claim professional and expert service of a very distinct order. The educational system is not a thing upon which any party or class or sect can be allowed to uplift itself, and the administration of the system is not a thing to be held of minor importance and tossed about in divers departments which manage the conspicuous and imperative affairs of a great government.

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It is obviously as important that these principles shall be asserted in our Territories and among our island peoples as in the already organized States. Indeed, it is much more important in remote Federal territory than in our States, because in such territory there is not that public sentiment which quickens and guides and limits official action in educational administration as in our States, where American feeling prevails, and institutions have taken form, and the philosophy of our educational system is understood and accepted.

We have recently been reminded by Secretary Root that the States must do some things better than they are doing them, or the Union will have to do them from obvious necessity. The suggestion was timely and has attracted considerable criticism without much reason, for it was only equivalent to saying that we shall find the way for doing what the better and clearly developed sentiment of the country deems it necessary and wise to do. Carlyle sums up the reasons for the failure of the Constitution of the Constituent Assembly of France in the words, "The Constitution would not *march*." The reason our Constitution has succeeded is in the fact that Marshall broke out roads for it and trained it in *marching*. But if it had "marched" generally as it has in education, it is to be feared that it would be taking a long and needed rest now.

If we were to apply Federal school policies to the State which is so proud of Mr. Root, we would reduce the New York State Education Department to the function of getting information about schools when school officers are anxious to supply it, and to giving benevolent advice about schools when people will considerately come and listen. We would appoint superintendents of schools in our large cities through the mayors, and have them report to the Legislature through the Secretary of State when they feel like it. We would annex the schools in the St. Lawrence Valley to the Agricultural Department, and those in the southern tier of counties to the Labor Department. And we would notify Long Island, stretching to the remote east and likely to be involved in wars over righteousness when the President comes home, that hereafter it will have to pay respects to the Adjutant-General, and that its schools must begin to share supervision with the National Guard. In all seriousness, we would have to go back in the history of the State for more than fifty years, when the Secretary of State was Superintendent of Common Schools, and all school management, both local and general, was practically at one with politics. And no matter how far we might go back, we should find nothing to equal the inconsistency of having a completely organized, capable, and nonpartisan instrumentality for school administration ready at hand and refusing to use it.

We all know how inevitably the influences which are at the top of an administrative organization soon bear upon appointments therein and in time affect the conduct and shape the character of all who are connected with it. It must be so as to Federal schools. This is not blaming Federal officers. They are entitled to commendation for very good administration under untoward and perverse circumstances. The desirability of popular control wherever there is the enlightenment which may safely exercise it, and of the association of laymen with pedagogues in the management of schools, is of course recognized. Even then it is necessary to observe the fundamental principles which underlie our educational policies and to effect the kind of organization and move upon the lines which experience has shown to be essential to results in administration. The business side of Federal or Territorial schools may properly enough rest with business officials, but the professional side ought clearly to be in the charge of professional men and women. The Government of the United States has not yet got upon the correct lines of procedure in education. The reason is not far afield. It is found in politics and in officialism. Territorial Governors, Members of Congress, department officials, never wave aside any opportunity to make appointments, and when the occasion arises for the United States Commissioner of Education to contend with them about educational policies in the corridors

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and committee-rooms of the National Capitol, the Commissioner cannot bring himself to do it, and he would seem weak indeed if he tried.

If the United States Bureau is to be confined to statistics and information, it would seem better that it be not permitted to be regarded as an *administrative* or *propagating* instrument of the Federal Government at all. In that case it might better be completely made up of statisticians and editors, and constituted a section in the Census Office. It would there have definite and undoubted *authority to do something*.

But that is not what is needed. With a comprehensive plan, and concentrated administration, and actual responsibilities, the Federal education office would attain such significance that it could get the attention of Congress and the country. Again, the experience of the Government in dealing with one class of schools would be quickly available in dealing with every other class. The Government needs, for example, to make a serious and scientific study of the whole matter of adapting our philosophy and practice concerning common schools to irresponsible, dependent, non-Caucasian peoples, and can do it more completely and quickly through a unified organization in which all of the conditions and all of the experiences may be brought to bear upon one another. Yet, again, the very enlargement of the National Bureau through bringing together the number of people who are now engaged, at Washington, in looking after Federal schools, would bring together, in time, if not at once, a much stronger body of educational experts; and it would insure for each interest, in large measure, the combined judgment of all. All this would develop a new class of educational literature which would be of service to all the world. There is a distinct financial loss to the school work which the Government is trying to do, through the lack of comprehensive plan; and there is a distinct moral loss to the Nation, and to education the world over, because of the freakish and fragmentary methods which are being employed.

But perhaps a weightier consideration than any that has yet been suggested remains to be mentioned. There are needed educational activities outside of the schools. Libraries, study clubs, home study, are within the functions of democratic government. It is hard to set things right after they have got started in the wrong way. The farther they have gone in the wrong way the harder it is. The Federal educational activities not only need to be related together so that they may support one another, and they not only need to be systematized and professionalized, but they need to be extended and sanely energized, made universal, and charged with responsibility for all manner of educational activities in all Federal territory.

Why should our Federal Union maintain at its Capitol an educational office without using it? If it is to maintain such an office, why should it neglect and belittle it? Why should it make the pay of the Commissioner so small and his functions so insignificant that any man fit to speak for the Nation upon education must suffer humiliation before he is allowed to do it? Why not have a definite Federal educational plan, which is above partisanship, and an educational organization worthy of such a Nation? Why longer allow education to seem to come after everything else in the Federal scheme, when the conditions are here which ought to put it to the fore? Why not recognize the principles which are fundamental, and the policies which are fruitful, and the concentration which will of itself effect large and lasting accomplishments in education? In a word, why does not some strong hand that is able to do things go about a reorganization at Washington which will enable the Government to increase its educational efficiency, logically meet its responsibilities to its new subjects, and at the same time set a good example to all of the States and all of the world? And what could be more fitting than that the name of the President who has really accomplished so very much for the intellectual progress of the Nation should forever be identified with legislation reorganizing the educational activities of the Federal Government upon a logical, effectual, and enduring plan?

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POOR JULIET!

BY MARY BUELL WOOD

I TOOK a bitter Philistine to the play the other night. I didn't know it was a Philistine—it wore creamy, silken draperies with lacy frills; its hair was golden and of a fluffiness sufficient to sustain the astounding rear extension of the modish head-gear; and its youthful features and coloring were of the type which not even the prevailing fashion could disfigure.

It was, in short, my own dear little cousin Alicia—sophomore at Oxbridge—and I had tucked away a couple of extra handkerchiefs, for the play was Romeo and Juliet, and I knew my own weakness. My mind began to misgive me almost before the asbestos went up.

"You know, Cousin Aleck, my paper on Dramatic Form took first prize this year," observed Alicia, removing the inverted flower-basket from her head, and patting the little puffs and curls into place; "in fact, I have made a special study of the Drama—I had to—so, of course, I can appreciate things better. I have never seen this acted, and you can imagine how I am looking forward to it."

End of First Act. Alicia, briskly:

"That nurse is about forty years too old. According to the book, her own child had just died when she took Juliet, and, presumably, she would have been about the same age as Lady Capulet. But look at her—a doddering old *Thing!*"

End of Act Two. Alicia, with finality:

"*I* call it distinctly forthputting—even for that period—for a girl to ask a man to name the day, not to say hour and minute, the second time she sees him, and that, too, while he is only casually mooning around under her window, an hour or so after their first meeting."

"But, my dear, think of the beautiful image of young love sweeping everything before it, and—"

"'Young love'"—the golden puffs tossed scornfully. "Juliet had her wits about her; she wasn't taking any chances—Rosaline was too recent!"

End of Third Act. Alicia, impatiently:

"It does make me so cross! Why on earth didn't he take his Juliet down the rope ladder, and off with him to Mantua, if he was banished? Besides, a girl like that, so forward about the wedding, would never let him leave her behind, once she had him safely corralled. She would know better!"

I must be getting old. What wonderfully keen analytical power! In my time a college education was less exhaustive.

End of Fifth Act. Alicia, witheringly:

"I *must* say I *should* think Romeo, when suddenly informed of his wife's supposed death, *might* find something a *little* more to the point than an inventory of the contents of the apothecary's shop!

"And what an anticlimax of the worst possible description to have Juliet die twice! You get your sympathies all worked up, seeing her lying there on her bier, so sweet and long and straight, and then up she gets, finds the two corpses, and by the time she stabs herself your thrill is all tired out and wants to rest."

"Oh, my *dear*—aren't you just a *little* too critical? Quite a number of people have thought this immortal—a poetic, love-dream tragedy—and—"

"Poor Cousin Aleck—you old club men are so sentimental. Now I've made a study of it, so I see the mechanism better than you do, probably. To-morrow I'll send you the skeleton I wrote for our literature class."

Here it is:

Juliet, aged thirteen, sees Romeo (who, up to that very moment, has been wailing around over Rosaline, and only goes to the Capulets' party because Benvolio tells him he may meet some fair one who will make him forget her); they fall madly in love at first sight, and Romeo, inadvertently baying at the moon under her window an hour or so later, finds himself pinned down to name the day and hour by the practical Juliet, before he can get away.

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Not to be outdone in ardor, he suggests the following afternoon, and the friar, to whom they go, marries them as fast as he can, to get rid of them. Then Romeo, mixing up in Mercutio's quarrel, kills Tybalt, and gets properly banished for it.

The useful friar conceals the murderer, Romeo, and, when the doddering nurse comes to his cell with orders from the practical Juliet (who thus early shows the true wifely instinct) to hunt up her husband and send him home, urges him to carry out his original plan with the aid of the rope ladder.

Now comes the fatal weak point in the construction of the plot. Why didn't the friar tell him to take his Juliet down the ladder and get away with her to Mantua? Or why didn't Romeo think of it himself? No obstacle is apparent—no reason given. However, being the obvious thing to do, he doesn't do it, and Juliet, left behind, which a girl of her spirit never would have been, becomes the prey to the importunities of her sensible parents regarding Paris—an excellent match for her, if she hadn't foolishly married Romeo.

Again she rushes to the resourceful friar, who promptly suggests the eminently satisfactory alternative of a perpetual convent existence, and when to this alluring proposition she strangely enough prefers poison, he then offers a compromise with a sleeping potion, whose effects shall simulate the deadlier draught.

Meantime, Romeo, in Mantua, accidentally hearing of her death, rattles off the contents of the apothecary's shop in a heartbroken manner, then hies him to her tomb, and after getting even with Paris, whom he encounters at the bier, drinks poison himself, while Juliet, waking up just too late of course, stabs *herself* with his dagger. *Every one* unhappy, and all through Romeo's stupidity in not taking his wife along with him if he had to be banished.

Summary: Plot faulty in construction. Characters not true to life. Situations not convincing. Alicia—dixit.

I suppose she must be right, and that the old-fashioned version with the entire audience suffering from a sudden severe cold in its head will soon be a thing of the past. But, for my part, I found my extra handkerchiefs just as useful as ever.

CHRISTIANITY AND THE SOCIAL CRISIS[1]

AMONG the multiplying books which discuss our economic system from a religious standpoint the present volume by the Professor of Church History in the Rochester Theological Seminary is in the foremost rank. While its argument is strongly based on economic, historical, ethical, and religious grounds, its temper and tone, admirably dispassionate and judicial, commend it to fair-minded men.

A generation ago President Roswell D. Hitchcock, of revered memory, declared that the prime need of our time is "to Christianize Christendom." The need is unabated still, but the pressure to meet it is greater, and threatens ill both to Church and State if it be not met before long. Hence the imminence of a social crisis which many students of current events and movements descry in the increasing tension between the "privileged" and the "disinherited" classes. The duty and the stake of the Church in the issue between capitalism and the proletariat, between commercialism and Christianity, is the point which Professor Rauschenbusch's argument endeavors to drive home into the conscience of religious men. His argument is based on two propositions:

(1) Enormous social injustice in the distribution of the earnings of labor has resulted from the industrial revolution of the last century, which brought industrial

[1] Christianity and the Social Crisis. By Walter Rauschenbusch. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50, net.

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armies into dependence upon a comparatively few owners of productive machinery. The census of 1900 estimates the average per capita production at $12.14 per day, and the average wage at $1.38. The Inter State Commerce Commission in 1902 stated that from 1896 the average earnings of 1,200,000 railway employees had increased five per cent; the net earnings of the owners, sixty-two per cent. The political economists confess that the just distribution of the product of labor is still an unsolved problem of their science.

(2) The economic system which produces such injustice, with the contrasts resulting between Plenty and Want, is in stark contradiction to the spirit of Christianity, and either the one or the other must give way. This is, so to speak, the *pons asinorum* of the entire argument, and accordingly the first half of the volume is given to an exposition of what is still poorly understood in the churches—the distinctively social spirit of Christianity, bent on transforming all human societies into brotherhoods.

This was the spirit of the Hebrew prophets, always preaching public morality and social justice. From this historical background Jesus came forth with a professed purpose to realize its ideals, "preaching the kingdom of God," a regenerated fraternal society. But this idea "almost completely passed out of Christian thought as soon as Christianity passed from the Jewish people, and found its spiritual home in the Græco-Roman world. The historical basis for the idea was wanting there. The phrase was taken along, just as an emigrant will carry a water-jar with him; but the water from the well of Bethlehem evaporated, and it was now used to dip water from the wells of Ephesus, or from the Nile and Tiber."

Why the Church failed to work for social regeneration in the spirit of its Founder is shown in a clear account of the alien forces which deflected it from his aim. That it has in various ways ameliorated evil conditions is affirmed, but also that such results have been "by-products," and that the main current of its effort has never been consciously directed to Jesus' design of Christianizing social life.

But now that the imperialism of the first three centuries, which made any social propaganda impossible, is no more; now that the paralyzing embrace of the Church by the State, the ignorance and superstition, the monasticism, sacerdotalism, ecclesiasticism, and dogmatism which long rested like an incubus on the spirit of Christianity, have given place to the opportunities of a Christian democracy, the time is ripe, nay, says our author, urgent, for the Church to recover her original aim and inspiration. The urgency is incisively stated in a chapter on "The Present Crisis"—a tremendous indictment of the social wrongs and dangers growing out of an essentially anti-Christian economic *system*. What must come of them "is either a revival of social religion, or the deluge." The hopefulness of the situation is that "if the Church directed its full available force against any social wrong, there is probably nothing that could stand up against it." Nothing hinders, except that, as Bishop Gore lately said, and as the New York State Conference of Religion has been saying for years, "the majority of Christian people do not yet understand what Christian morality really is." One thing seems fairly certain. Should churchmen whose misunderstandings make a bogey of socialism have the same moral passion for the righting of economic wrongs that socialists show, the Christianizing of Christendom would be expedited.

Professor Rauschenbusch's concluding chapter, "What to Do?" is sanely and helpfully constructive. He calmly corrects fictions and prejudices. He strongly accents moral forces. He sees that the new order is already here in "a new type of Christian"—men who have deeply imbibed the social spirit and aim of Jesus, men to whom manhood is more sacred than machinery, and persons than goods; who do not ask, How much child labor and female labor must be had to make profit by industry? but, How must industry be organized so as to foster the family, protect personal rights, and promote Christian living? But he sees that "idealists alone have never carried through any great social change." The hope of the Christian

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ideal of co-operation and economic fraternity can win only by help of the powerful class movement now struggling upward in the interests of organized labor. "Just as the Protestant principle of religious liberty and the democratic principle of political liberty rose to victory by an alliance with the middle class then rising to power, so the new Christian principle of brotherly association must ally itself with the working class, if both are to conquer."

Years ago the distinguished Belgian economist, de Laveleye, declared: "The Church can never get away from her socialistic base." Professor Rauschenbusch considers socialism to be the logical outcome of the labor movement *in course of time*. His main reliance for it is on the invincible spirit of Christianity, working for a higher and more strenuous type of morality and for the socializing of religion. The reflection that "democrat" a century ago was as misunderstood and obnoxious a term as "socialist" is now, tends to check any hasty repudiation of the argument here presented. It carries the weight belonging to a specialist in history, re-enforced by weighty economic authority. The upholders of negro slavery rejected the scheme of gradual emancipation proposed sixty years ago by Henry Clay, and the system had to be extirpated by the sword. The same alternative is now presented in the arguments of Professor Rauschenbusch: either a gradual emancipation from an economic system involving intolerable injustice, or before long a ruinous explosion of it.

THE AWAKENING OF CHINA[1]

IN Mr. Albert Porter's recent biographical study of that veteran American missionary and educator, Dr. W. A. P. Martin (published in the August 24 issue of The Outlook), reference was made to Dr. Martin's new book, "The Awakening of China," which finds a place in Doubleday, Page & Co.'s "Geographical Library." It is safe to say that no volume yet issued in this valuable series is of such immediate importance as Dr. Martin's work. Not only does it deal with a movement of tremendous international significance, but it is written by a man than whom not even Sir Robert Hart is better qualified to speak with the voice of authority on all things Chinese. As Mr. Porter pointed out, Dr. Martin first went to China nearly sixty years ago as a missionary from the United States; has almost constantly resided there, making his home in, or visiting, its most important provinces; was for twenty-five years head of the Diplomatic College at Peking, possessing throughout that period the confidence of the leading officials; afterwards became President of the short-lived Imperial University; and has since been actively engaged, in co-operation with a liberal if not wholly enlightened viceroy, in promoting the cause of education and other greatly needed reforms.

Every one of the international and internecine conflicts which, since the middle of the nineteenth century, have played an important part in arousing China from her old-time lethargy, found Dr. Martin an interested and sometimes involuntary spectator. It was long his belief, born of the continuance of the policy of repression and reaction, that the only hope for the country lay in its partition and the expulsion of the Manchus. But to-day, with an optimism founded on the striking contrast between the present and the immediate past, he is of a different mind; and makes known to the English-speaking world his conviction that the lessons thus forcibly taught by the armed conflicts of half a century have, after all, been taken to heart, and that the Western nations may soon have to reckon with a new and potentially most dangerous power.

On every hand he finds real signs of reform and progress. In matters of military and naval policy, in the economic realm, in the field of letters and

[1] The Awakening of China. By Dr. W. A. P. Martin. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. $3.80, net.

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education, in politics, in religion—the story he tells is always the same. "China," Dr. Martin roundly asserts, "is the theater of the greatest movement now taking place on the face of the globe. In comparison with it the agitation in Russia shrinks to insignificance, for it is not political, but social. Its object is not a changed dynasty, nor a revolution in the form of government; but, with higher aim and deeper motive, it promises nothing short of the complete renovation of the oldest, most populous, and most conservative of empires." As a first, though not most important, indication of the change in conditions, he notes the fact that, with the aid of the railways which she is rapidly constructing, China has demonstrated in a practical way her ability to assemble a body of one hundred thousand trained troops, drilled by Western methods, armed with Western weapons, and uniformed in Western style—a significant contrast to the undisciplined horde that constituted the Chinese army not so many years ago. Similarly, it is her intention to develop a really powerful navy, and, as a beginning, orders have been issued for the construction of eight armored cruisers and two battle-ships of a modern type; five of which, as well as three naval stations, are to be equipped with the wireless telegraph.

Improvement in communication facilities—those potent instruments in national development and progress—is, in fact, one of the changes on which Dr. Martin places greatest emphasis. Already a railway has been built from Peking to Hankow, a distance of six hundred miles, and when extended as projected it will be possible to journey from the capital to Canton in three days, as against the ten days now required for the trip by steamer, and the three months of the ante-steam period. Other lines have been mapped out to penetrate to the western provinces, and Dr. Martin notes that "even in Mongolia it is proposed to supersede the camel by the iron horse on the caravan route to Russia." Still more conspicuous is the development of the telegraph. "It's wonderful," the governmental heads had commented when Dr. Martin first exhibited the Morse system to them over forty years ago, "but we can't use it in our country. The people would steal the wires." To-day the wires cover whole provinces, not merely flashing messages from one official to another, but in daily use for the transaction of private business, the people having grown accustomed to the startling innovation of having "their thunder-god bottled up and brought down to be their courier." The telephone has also won a commanding place in the domestic and commercial economy of the Empire; and although the Chinese have yet to see electricity applied as a motive force, it is promised that trolley-cars will soon be running in Shanghai and Tientsin. Another and not unimportant improvement in the field of communication has been the establishment of a modern post-office system in every province, with transportation of the mails by rail and steamboat in place of the antiquated courier system—a change so generally appreciated that, it is recorded, the sale of stamps rose fifty per cent in the one year 1905.

Industrial development, according to Dr. Martin, is likewise proceeding apace. Under governmental regulation, limiting the number of shares to be held by aliens and encouraging the natives to invest, companies are now forming for the exploitation of all sorts of minerals. Attention is being paid to the improvement of agricultural methods and to the expansion of manufactures. This is particularly true of the province of Hupeh, where Viceroy Chang, with whom Dr. Martin has been closely associated for the past few years, has promoted the establishment of a large number of silk and cotton mills, glass factories, and iron works. All of these, we are told, are operated on an extensive scale, with foreign machinery and under the direction of foreign experts. In fact, China is doing precisely what Japan has done before her—calling in the foreigner, although she has no love for him, and asking him to instruct her in Western ways.

More than this, she seems really desirous of making the knowledge possessed by the Western world accessible to the great mass of her people. Here, as may

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be imagined, Dr. Martin finds the strongest proof that China is in earnest in the matter of reform. "Filling the sky," he enthusiastically exclaims, "with a glow of hope not unlike the approach of sunshine after an arctic winter, the reform in the field of education throws all others into the shade." Not only has China sent some eight thousand of her brightest youth to Japan for the purpose of equipping them to educate their fellows, but it is actually proposed to upbuild a national school system—an edict of September, 1905, decreeing the abolition of the "literary competitive examinations of the old style," and ordering that "hereafter exclusive attention shall be given to the establishment of schools of modern learning throughout the Empire." As an evidence of good faith, Dr. Martin instances further the action of the Emperor in reducing by two-thirds the annual appropriation for the Court theatrical troupe, and applying the sum thus saved to educational purposes. The spirit of the times is similarly seen in the assurance of an influential official that he is doing all in his power to bring about the foundation of schools for girls—a revolutionary innovation, as all will understand who know anything about the present degraded status of the Chinese woman. Popular education is also being directly promoted by the concession of a certain measure of freedom to the press, the representatives of which have already begun to agitate several radical reforms, notably the adoption of Christianity as the only faith that meets the needs of an enlightened people.

Even more significant from the educational standpoint is the work of the High Commission sent out in 1905 to study the institutions of the civilized countries of the West and report on the adoption of such as they might deem desirable. One result of their labors has been the publication of an imperial decree aimed at the total eradication of the opium traffic—a negative reform of the utmost value. Another, it would seem, has been to bring squarely to the attention of the Emperor and the Council of State the question of providing China with a form of constitutional government. "The five commissioners," Dr. Martin quotes from the China Times, "have sent in a joint memorial dealing with what they have seen in foreign countries during the last three months. They report that the wealthiest and the strongest nations in the world to-day are governed by constitutional government. They mention the proclamation of constitutional government in Russia, and remark that China is the only great country that has not adopted that principle. As they have carefully studied the systems of England, the United States, Japan, etc., they earnestly request the Throne to issue a decree fixing on five years as the limit within which China will adopt a constitutional form of government."

A Chinese Parliament would be to many a thing incredible. But it must be remembered that the word "impossible" has to be used with great discretion; and also that the many reforms, of which only a partial enumeration has been made above, have for the most part originated during the past four years. Of course it is as yet too soon to say that they will secure a permanent foothold in a nation that has hitherto deliberately closed its eyes to the progress of the world about it. The case of Japan does not afford altogether a safe analogy. China, for one thing, as Dr. Martin himself admits, lacks the national solidarity, the patriotism, of Japan—every province being a kingdom unto itself, and abounding in a latent jealousy, if not hostility, towards the rest of the Empire. The intense anti-foreign spirit, described in the present volume as the normal state of the Chinese mind, is another factor to be taken into account, and might easily lead to a reactionary movement such as culminated in the Boxer outrages. Yet, with railway, telegraph, post-office, school, and newspaper extension, national solidarity must in time be achieved, and with solidarity will inevitably come a development of patriotism; while the anti-foreign spirit will undoubtedly diminish with the spread of Christianity, and with more considerate treatment than China has hitherto received from the now hated foreigner. All in all, there seems to be valid ground

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for Dr. Martin's optimistic view of the future, and consequently ample cause for the peoples of the West to ponder carefully the attitude they should henceforth adopt towards the awakening giant of the Far East.

It should be added that, besides reviewing China's recent advance, Dr. Martin affords his readers an informative glimpse of the geography, resources, and history of the country, making this survey for the excellent reason that "no people can be understood or properly studied apart from their environment." He does not, however, attempt any exhaustive examination such as is found in Brinkley's pages; contenting himself with bringing out the salient and the interesting in brief outline sketches. Like all the volumes of the "Geographical Library" in which his book finds a place, it is handsomely illustrated from good photographs. But it is rounded out by an index so hopelessly inadequate as to be a burden rather than a help to the student who would use the work for reference purposes; any later edition should include a revision of the index.

Comment on Current Books

Novels and Tales

The first-fruits of the autumn fiction can hardly be described as impressive in quality, whatever may be said as to quantity. With the exception of Miss May Sinclair's "The Helpmate," (her first novel to be written since the great success of "The Divine Fire") and Sir Gilbert Parker's "The Weavers" (both of which will be considered a little later on), there is little, as yet, published that belongs to the first rank, although half a dozen important novels which have been running their course as serials are on the eve of appearing in book form.

Mr. Richard Bagot's "Temptation"[1] is in the main a close and subtle study of a thoroughly bad woman—perverse, sensual, untruthful, and murderous. No one can deny the skill with which this dissection of viciousness is made, but every one may ask, "Was it worth while?" Mr. Bagot's method, too, is for many readers too deliberate, and he is apt to let his characters recount the same incident over more than once in different conversations. That which may be most cordially praised in this novel is the author's evidently exact and always interesting depiction of Italian country life and social customs and manners.

One novel may be under-sophisticated as another is over-sophisticated. Mr. Bagot's book belongs to the latter category; Mr. H. B. Wright's "The Shepherd of the Hills"[2] to the former. Mr. Wright aims at homely simplicity and native nobility of character in his tale of the Ozark Mountains; and he does, in fact, generally succeed in making his sweet country maiden, his young giant of rural manhood, and his remorseful doctor of divinity who has fled from his great city church to live a simple shepherd's life, all ring true to nature. But both in the more melodramatic and the more sentimental parts of his tale he is apt to overdo the thing. With all its crudeness, however, the story does appeal to one's admiration of pluck and honesty.

There is an unusual quality both in conception and execution in a new novel[1] called "The Burning Torch," by F. F. Montresor. The quaint, sad little Dolores clinging to her father on the homeward voyage from South America to England wins our sympathy at once. The tragic death of her father leaves her alone except for a large family of prosperous cousins to whom she is sent. Outward circumstances, however, are never as important to the sensitive girl as is the atmosphere of her spirit. She carries the "burning torch" of her infinite sympathy and desire for love everywhere, often suffering in the effort, and often failing to lighten the distressing clouds of selfishness and hatred about her; but she is a brave soul, and brings happiness to many. Her most congenial cousin is Gregory Charrington, a man endowed with a cheerful mind and no personal vanity. He is the founder of the Brotherhood of the Free Spirit, and works for the same end as the queer family of "Mums," who manage a dancing resort for the class between swells and rowdies in London. The gift of second sight possessed by Dolores is a burden to her loving heart, and she talks it over with Gregory, who turns the light of common sense upon it and restores her happy

[1] Temptation. By Richard Bagot. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

[2] The Shepherd of the Hills. By Harold Bell Wright. The Book Supply Company, Chicago. $1.50.

[1] The Burning Torch. By F. F. Montresor. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.50.

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courage. She begs her cousin Gregory not to go on a certain journey because she foresees danger. He goes, telling her cheerfully that courage comes from God, who knows we have no need to fear. In the end they are both right, and attain freedom and happiness, though not in the ordinary way. While there are many grim and not altogether pleasant traits distributed among the actors, there is also a decided hopefulness for humanity and faith in God pervading the story.

No one can help smiling over "Brunhilde's Paying Guest."[1] Brunhilde advertised for boarders, and when they appeared at her South Carolina homestead she insulted them. She was a red-haired goddess with a wonderful voice, but she had to eke out her income. The scenes between her and the Northern youth who was a "paying guest" are most amusing. In fact, all the girls in the book are merry, impertinent coquettes, and their wit is at times almost too much alike to be true. A bright, entertaining story for an idle hour, and one that leaves no unpleasant impression.

The old Duchess described the hero of William Frederick Dix's new romance, "The Lost Princess,"[2] perfectly, and we can do no better than to quote her, for in the hero's character you have the book. "He is one complete knight errant," she said. "All you have to do is to press the button and off he goes; only, instead of riding in armor, with lance set to meet all comers, he uses submarines and wireless telegraph, and, for aught I know, flying machines. If you have a mysterious princess to rescue, or a villain to obliterate, just press the button." We may add to his credit that he was a modest hero withal.

Harry Hamilton, for a youth of sixteen, lived a crowded life from the time he and his two boy friends were picked up at sea and began their "Voyage with Captain Dynamite."[3] Charles Edward Rich, the author of the tale, does not spare adventures, and boy readers will be thrilled by the excitements provided when the three lost boys are carried to Cuba and aid in rescuing a fair lady from the cruel Spaniards.

The author of "Semiramis,"[4] Edward Peple, has woven a romance of ancient Assyria in which the proportions of imagination and history are unequal. Fortunately for the reader, imagination almost routs history, and the result is a highly entertaining story. The figure of the warrior queen, half goddess, half mortal, stands out brilliantly wherever she is placed. Her love for the Assyrian prince, their adventures, her clever manipulation of the jealous King Ninus, and her final grim triumph are vividly described.

It would be interesting to know whether Captain Marryat has retained upon boys of our days the hold he had upon those of perhaps thirty or forty years ago. With the latter, "Mr. Midshipman Easy"[1] was a prime favorite, both because of its fun—which was occasionally a trifle coarse (the present edition has been "bowdlerized"), but which was always hearty and jolly—and because of its sharply drawn pictures of naval fighting, in which Captain Marryat has hardly been surpassed by his many imitators of later years. Now we have, presumably for the holiday trade, a handsome large-volume edition of this tale, illustrated with really admirable drawings by Mr. Zogbaum, one of the best of our American painters of sea life.

A large number of attractive and desirable literary classics in thin-paper editions[2] are added this year to those formerly mentioned in The Outlook as coming from the Crowell press. Thus we have an edition of Dumas (or rather of ten of the best of his long list of novels), a set of the principal stories of Victor Hugo, and in single volumes not a few choice books such as Reade's "Cloister and the Hearth" and Barrie's "Little Minister." As we have remarked before, the number of excellent and recognized works of general literature which can be obtained in this convenient and condensed form, in which, however, clearness of type is not sacrificed to the smallness of volume, is notable.

Tasso and His Times

It is rather because this volume[3] gives us a clear picture of Italy in the latter part of the sixteenth century than because it is a biography of Tasso that it will be welcome to a large circle of readers. Tasso himself was not only a man of genius, but a very singular and restless personage, and the story of his struggles and sorrows is not without interest. It can be said of few great poets that they were willing, as was Tasso, entirely to rewrite a work of genius in order to meet criticisms brought against it by their own friends. This was what Tasso did with "Gerusalemme Liberata." To be sure, he

[1] Brunhilde's Paying Guest. By Caroline Fuller. The Century Company, New York. $1.50.
[2] The Lost Princess. By William Frederick Dix. Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $1.50.
[3] A Voyage with Captain Dynamite. By Charles Edward Rich. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York. $1.
[4] Semiramis. By Edward Peple. Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $1.50.

[1] Mr. Midshipman Easy. By Captain Marryat. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.50.
[2] Thin-Paper Editions. Alexandre Dumas, 10 vols. ($12.50 per set, $1.25 per vol.) Victor Hugo, 8 vols. ($10 per set, $1.25 per vol.) J. M. Barrie (The Little Minister), Eugene Sue (The Wandering Jew), Charles Lamb (Essays of Elia), Charles Reade (The Cloister and the Hearth). Per vol., $1.25. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York.
[3] Tasso and His Times. By William Boulting. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.75.

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nearly spoiled the work by his modest compliance with the pedantic criticism of men who were unable to appreciate it. Fortunately, the world has not been obliged to read the great poem in its altered form. Tasso was unhappy because he had a temperamental melancholy, because his religious beliefs were so uncertain that he often doubted the spiritual value of his own work, and finally because, despite himself, he became involved in the court intrigues of Ferrara. Altogether his personal history is a sad one, but its relation throws in many ways illumination upon the social and literary history of his times.

Houses for Town and Country

The author of this volume[1] upon domestic architecture, William Herbert, has given us a great number of beautiful pictures to illustrate his teachings. He frankly admits that we Americans depend too much upon our excellent intentions, believing that they will achieve the desired result. The natural consequence is that we are surrounded by well-intended experiments rather than successful achievements. Yet we are encouraged to hope for better things, especially if we learn to trust implicitly in our architect. Mr. Herbert assures us that "of course the American business man and his wife have no æsthetic traditions at all, and no informing attitude toward such matters, except the wish for cheerful and comfortable surroundings." But the architect, we are told, "whatever his limitations, alone represents a good æsthetic tradition." Being neither a business man nor an architect, our observation had led us to suspect this to be the architect's opinion, and now we are certain of it. The inquiring layman can learn much from this exposition of architectural ideals, however, and if he is thinking of building a house either in town or country, he will do well to consult these pages. They are addressed to the man who is able to build a house costing not less than twenty thousand dollars, and running up to many times that sum.

Evolution and Animal Life

This volume[2] is, in the main, not a discussion of the theories of evolution, but rather an exposition of its facts, processes, and laws. Dr. Jordan, the President of the Leland Stanford University, and his colleague in this work, Dr. Kellogg, Professor of Entomology in that University, are eminently fitted precisely for this task. They take up one by one such topics as the physical basis and simplest expression of life formation and mutation as one factor of evolution, heredity as another, and selection—natural, sexual, or artificial—as another factor, and follow out the methods of nature with abundant example and illustration. Thus the book is perfectly capable of being understood by the reader who is not trained technically in science, provided that he will give it his fair and careful attention. Altogether the work covers a field quite different from that of most books dealing with evolution, and to all students of the subject and to all who have a natural taste for science in popularized but accurate form it will prove of inestimable value. In saying this we need not imply that every conclusion reached in this book is to be approved as positively determined. The authors themselves remark, "We cannot talk long without saying something that others do not believe, and others cannot talk long without saying something that we do not believe." Their object is, first of all, to inspire students with a desire to reach conclusions of their own through their own investigations.

The New Crusade

The larger number of the discourses in this volume[1] were given on anniversaries or other special occasions. The title of the first appropriately covers the series. Their tone is militant and virile; they lift up the standard and eloquently call to arms against the forces at work in the community for moral decay. They rouse the crusading spirit, but beyond the revival of the individual conscience and moral zeal, which, of course, is the fundamentally important thing, they do not deal with questions of the campaign.

Christianity's Storm-Center

The best thing yet done toward a good and mutually helpful understanding between the churches and the labor unions was the creation of the Department of Church and Labor in its Board of Home Missions by the Presbyterian Church, and the appointment of a minister who is also a trades-unionist, a graduate from the machine-shop, to be its superintendent. That minister is the author of this book.[2] That the "storm-center" of Christianity, as well as of democracy, is where the conditions adverse to both are massed in "the city wilderness" goes without saying. Here is where Mr. Stelzle's field of observation and effort mainly lies, and he makes a full report of it. Churchmen who

[1] Houses for Town or Country. By William Herbert. Duffield & Co., New York. $2. Postage, 18c.
[2] Evolution and Animal Life. By David Starr Jordan and Vernon Lyman Kellogg. D Appleton & Co., New York. $2.50 net.

[1] The New Crusade: Occasional Sermons and Addresses. By Charles Edward Jefferson. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. $1.50, net. Postage, 15c.
[2] Christianity's Storm-Centre. By Charles Stelzle. Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. $1, net.

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would understand the conditions, threatening or hopeful, that challenge or invite them to this field, should not neglect this report. It will disabuse the fair-minded of current misunderstandings and prejudices, and open the way to efforts commensurate with their professed desires. How to do what needs doing is the point to which Mr. Stelzle leads up. There is a wide call for instructive information about this, and it is amply answered here. The only efficient sort of church in the "storm-center" is the institutional church, open all the time. Many will be surprised to learn that "it is quite possible to conduct an institutional church on one hundred dollars a year aside from the expense of carrying on the work of an ordinary church."

A Sea Dog of Devon

This is a capital title for a popular biography[1] of Sir John Hawkins. The great and splendid personality of Drake has, in a way, overshadowed the more homely but not less heroic character of Hawkins. The present author holds that, much as has been written about the exploits of the Elizabethan mariners on the Spanish Main and in the fight against the Spanish Armada, full justice has never really been given to Hawkins, and even declares that "he has never yet had a biographer." Mr. Walling's work, while it can hardly be called exhaustive, is certainly readable and animated. He tries with moderate success to clear Hawkins from the charge of having inaugurated the British slave trade; the real defense is that Hawkins was a man of his times and not a man far ahead of his times, and that a reproach which would be eminently just against a man of the nineteenth century falls with less force upon a sailor and adventurer of the sixteenth. No one who reads this stirring narrative will fail to agree with the estimate passed by the writers of the introduction to the book (Lord Brassey and John Leyland), which is in part as follows: "Hawkins deserves well of his country. He was a man of courage and resource. He possessed in a high degree administrative ability. He was a leader in an age of splendid achievements."

Seville

Every traveler acknowledges the unrivaled power of Athens as picturing one great historical period, the age of Pericles. But the traveler equally acknowledges the compelling charm of Rome as applicable to the illustration of every age since that of Romulus. So with Spain. When one thinks of that country, Granada, illustrating one historical period, probably comes first to mind. But when one goes to Spain, Granada takes its place in the category of places—Cordova, Toledo, Burgos, and the rest—which picture some particular period. Only one city, Seville, seems to hold in its comprehensiveness all Spanish history—aye, more, it unites the Orient to the Occident, for this most Spanish of cities was once a Moorish capital. It speaks to us both of Castilian kings and of that Arabic civilization which made the ninth century bright for southern Spain when all the rest of the world was lost in darkness. Furthermore, Seville, like Rome, represents not only a wonderful historical background, but is to-day pulsating with modern life. In comparison, Granada and Cordova and Toledo are dead. Finally, Seville, great because of her past, and actual because of her vivid present, also belongs in the not too long list of cities which represent each a distinct personality. What observer ever goes to Seville without being impressed by an individuality as strong and subtle as is that of Florence or Venice or Prague or Budapest? Hence, Mr. Calvert's "Spanish Series" could not include a more important volume than that on Seville.[1] Three hundred illustrations admirably supplement and explain the author's instructive text. His book should appeal alike to the tourist, artist, archæologist, and historical student.

The Idylls and the Ages

No one who has read the "Idylls of the King" with a susceptible and serious mind can fail to recognize this appreciation of them as a call to read them again for a deeper conviction of their imperishable beauty and spiritual value. Tennyson's great epic of a high and holy manhood frustrated in its endeavor to fulfill in a well-ordered world the social function belonging to the love of a wedded pair has fitly been called "the modern Paradise Lost." It has received no commentary so illuminating and faithful to the poet's thought as this[2]—a work of profound insight and felicitous expression. It would have rejoiced the soul of him who was "England's voice for half a century." That other world-poem, "In Memoriam," glorifying individual friendship, is the prelude on a single chord to the grander theme of the "Idylls." Of this says Professor Genung: "Men will return to it again and again from their newer vogues, as to a symphony of Beethoven, as to a time-hallowed choral song." This study of it has been appropriately put into an elegant typographical form.

[1] A Sea Dog of Devon: A Life of Sir John Hawkins. By R. A. J. Walling. The John Lane Company, New York. $1.75, net. Postage, 15c.

[1] Seville. By Albert F. Calvert. The John Lane Company, New York. $1.25, net. Postage, 10c.

[2] The Idylls and the Ages. By John Franklin Genung. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 75c., net. Postage, 8c.

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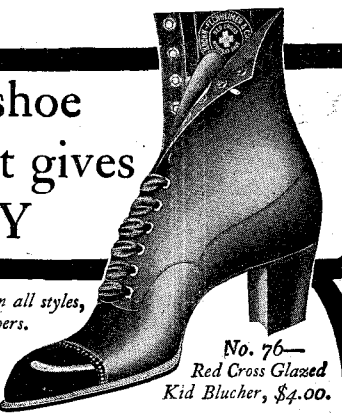

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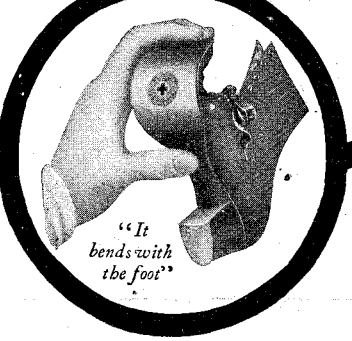

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